# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

#### READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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# American History in Westminster Abbey

BY MARY DUDDERIDGE

The appeal of the Dean of Westminster to the English-speaking peoples of the world, made on St. Peter's Day, 1920, for £250,000 to provide for repairs immediately and urgently needed for the preservation of the ancient church over which he presides, and to create a fund for its maintenance, met nowhere with a more generous and eager response than in the United States. Contributions both large and small poured into the Abbev's treasury, and with them went messages expressive of the greatest concern for its welfare. There was one gift of a few shillings from a domestic servant and another of £10,000 from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the latter carrying with it the hope that it might serve to further the ends for which the foundation was instituted. There was also a contribution of £10,000 from the Anglo-American Oil Company of London, which is the English branch of the Standard Oil organization. Between these extremes came such gifts as those of Mrs. Whitelaw Reid, widow of the late ambassador to the Court of St. James, and J. Pierpont Morgan, £200 and £500, respectively. Altogether the United States has been responsible for more than £25,000 of the £160,000 so far raised.

That Americans should have taken so great an interest in the preservation of this historic building is a fact which calls for no explanation. These great memorials of the past belong to the world, and Westminster Abbey belongs to the Anglo-Saxon family as, perhaps, no other ancient monument belongs to any people. This wonderful church, the origin of which is lost in the mists of Saxon and early British history; which is fabled to have been consecrated by St. Peter, its Patron Saint, in the presence of a glorious company of angels and archangels, who descended from the abodes of the blest by a celestial ladder to witness the ceremony; where the kings of England have been crowned for well-nigh a thousand years, and where the ashes of many of them lie, mingled with the dust of the most illustrious of their subjects:-this church is the shrine of our common literature, the Valhalla of our race, and we return to it from the remotest corners of the earth, with a sense, as Howells has said, of one returning to the home of his youth.

While sharing this glorious heritage with other English-speaking peoples, Americans have, besides, some associations that are peculiarly their own and which may fittingly be recalled at such a time as this. They are more numerous, probably, than even some of the donors to the Restoration Fund are aware.

We have all heard of the bust of Longfellow that stands in the Poets' Corner, "placed among the memorials of the poets of England by the English admirers of the American poet"; of the two stained glass windows in the Vestibule of the Chapter House by which Lowell is memorialized; and of the window in the North Transept to the memory of John Bunyan, presented, at the instance of American Baptists, by the admirers of the tinker of Bedford Jail in England, the United States and the British Colonies. If we read the newspapers carefully, we may know that a statue of Lincoln, a replica of the one by St. Gaudens in Lincoln Park, Chicago, looks toward the ancient fane from Canning Square; that funeral services were held there for the late Whitelaw Reid before his body was taken to the ship for removal to America; and that on July 4, 1918, the Stars and Stripes floated from one of the towers side by side with the royal standard. Some of us may also remember that on July 4, 1880, Phillips Brooks preached in the Abbey, and that in 1869 the body of George Peabody, who gave two and a half millions to establish homes for the London poor, rested for a time under the sacred roof, on a spot now marked by a tablet, before it was conveyed to America on a ship granted by the Queen for the purpose. But few except those who have a special taste for antiquarian research have any idea how much further American associations with the great church of Westminster can be traced, nor how interesting these associations are.

The very earliest of these historic ties, so far as the writer has been able to discover, are found, not among the tombs, but in the Abbey records. First in chronological order we come to the name of Hackler. So it was written three hundred years ago, but the Westminster Abbey Register, edited by Colonel Joseph Lemuel Chester, tells us that this is a clerical error, and that the person mentioned is none other than Richard Hackluyt, "the father of modern geographers," Prebendary and afterward Archdeacon of Westminster, of whom it has been said that England was more indebted to him for her American possessions than to any other man of that age. Becoming interested in early youth in the strange new lands which were then being discovered and settled, Hackluyt published, before he was thirty, an account of Divers Voyages Touching the Discovery of America (London, 1582). This brought him to the attention of Sir Edward Stafford, afterwards English ambassador to France, and accordingly, at the age of thirty, "being acquainted with the chiefest captaines at sea, the greatest merchants, and the best mariners" of the country, he was selected to accompany Stafford, as chaplain, to Paris. Here he made "diligent inquirie of such things as might yield any light unto our Westerne discoveries in America," and the first fruits of this inquirie was A particular discourse concerning Westerne discoveries written in the yere 1584, by Richard Hackluyt of Oxforde, at the requeste and direction of the righte worshipful Mr. Walter Raghly before the cominge home of his two barkes. The object of this manuscript was to recommend the enterprise of planting the English race in the unsettled parts of North America, and when the author revisited England he laid a copy before Elizabeth. He translated and compiled everything he could find relating to the subject of his studies, and one of his publications contains a map on which the name "Virginia" appeared for the first time. He was one of the chief promoters of the colonization of Virginia, and actually obtained for himself the prospective living of Jamestown, although he never occupied it. He died in 1616, and was buried somewhere in the Abbey, his grave being unmarked and

Next we find no less interesting a name than that of Washington, for it is recorded that on May 1st, 1677, one Katherin Washington was married in King Henry VII's Chapel to a certain Martin Foster, and in a footnote to the entry in Colonel Chester's Register we are told that this Katherin was the daughter of Colonel Henry Washington, eldest son of Sir William Washington and of Anne Villiers, his wife, the half-sister of George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham. Colonel Chester adds that, as Colonel Henry Washington had no male issue (at least surviving), it is impossible that he should have been the ancestor of the American President. Subsequent researches, however, which have established the once disputed connection of the Virginia Washingtons with the Washingtons of Sulgrave Manor, in Northamptonshire, England, have also made it clear that Colonel Henry Washington, though not an ancestor, must have been a very close connection of George Washington of Virginia, for his father, Sir William, was a great grandson of Lawrence Washington, to whom the Manor of Sulgrave was granted by Henry VIII, and brother of that Royalist rector of Purleigh, in Essex, who was ejected from his living by the Puritans, on the ground that he was "a common frequenter of alchouses . . . and often drunk" (though his friends said he was a "worthy Pious man"), and whose sons, John and Lawrence, emigrated to Virginia, the refuge of so many ruined Royalists; to repair the shattered fortunes of the family.

With the advance of the 18th century the rising colonial empire of Great Britain began to leave traces at Westminster. "Now, for the first time," writes Dean Stanley, "India on one side and North

America on the other leap into the Abbey." The most conspicuous of these North American memorials is the monument to Wolfe, to whose victory on the Plains of Abraham, in 1759, we owe the ascendancy of our race upon the continent, and who fell there at the tragically early age of thirty-two. It stands in the North Ambulatory, and at the time that the Dean's appeal for the Abbey was made was covered with the standards of the Canadian regiments that fought in the Great War.

More interesting from the point of view of this article is the monument to Lord Howe, erected by the Great and General Court of the Province of Massachusetts while it was still a British colony, "in testimony of the sense they had of his services and military virtues and of the affection their officers and soldiers bore to his command." The cenotaph, which stands at the left-hand side of the great door of the Nave, as one enters the Abbey, consists of a high tablet supported by two lions' heads, with a female figure representing the Genius of Massachusetts above it. Lord Howe fell at the age of thirty-three in a skirmish with French troops while leading a wing of General Abercrombie's army in the first disastrous expedition against Ticonderoga, in the year 1758. "With him," it is said, "the soul of the expedition seemed to expire"; the English suffered a crushing defeat, and Abercrombie returned with his troops to Albany. The memorial speaks truly of the virtues and military efficiency of this gallant young soldier. "He was the noblest Englishman that has appeared in my time," said Wolfe, who survived him only a year, "and the best soldier in the British army." As an illustration of his military skill Parkman tells us that he made his officers and men "throw off all useless encumbrances, . . . and carry in their knapsacks thirty pounds of meal which they cooked themselves: so that, according to an admiring Frenchman, they could live a month without their supply train.' He himself, we are also told, shared in the austerities he enjoined on others, even to washing his own shirt in the brook.

Not far from the Howe monument is that of another victim of Ticonderoga, Lieutenant-Colonel Roger Townshend, who, at the age of twenty-eight, was slain in the following year before the fatal fort. The monument, erected by "a disconsolate Parent, the Lady Viscountess Townshend," shows the youthful hero surrounded by his officers as he lay in the agonies of death. The sarcophagus is supported by two fine Indian figures, and upon it rests a broken bayonet picked up in the neighborhood of Ticonderoga and presented to Dean Stanley when he was in America.

Another interesting memorial of the period is that of Admiral Sir Peter Warren, who co-operated with Sir William Pepperell of Massachusetts in the taking of Louisbourg from the French, and who was removed "from a life of Honour to an eternity of happiness" in the year 1752. The monument, in the North Transept, was erected by "Susannah, his afflicted wife," born Susannah de Lancey of New York, in which city Sir Peter lived with great dignity

for some years and where his name still survives in that of Warren Street.

The Revolutionary War left a number of marks in the Abbey, which are of the greatest interest to Americans. There, near the door of the North Transept, lie the mortal remains of the great William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, who protested in vain against the attempt to tax the American colonies, who broke his heart over the ensuing war, and finally, when sick unto death, struggled to the House of Lords to protest in impassioned language against "the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble Monarchy." There also lies General Burgoyne, whose surrender at Saratoga marked the turning point of the war. His remains were placed in an unmarked grave somewhere in the North Cloister, and it is interesting to know that he spent his closing years in a little house near to the Abbey, occupying himself with literary work, and publishing a comedy called The Heiress, which ran rapidly through ten editions and was translated into several languages. Peace to his ashes! Who knows how much innocent pleasure he might have given to the world if the Fates had not conspired to make him a soldier? There, too, one finds a quaint monument to a certain William Wragg, snatched from oblivion by the fact that, being a Loyalist, he fled from South Carolina at the beginning of the war and was shipwrecked off the coast of Holland. A basrelief among the wilderness of tombs and memorials in the Nave represents him as struggling in the water, with a Dutch church and house in the background, while a female figure leans weeping over the whole.

There, finally, one finds the tomb of the ill-fated Major Andre, one of the most pathetic memorials in the Abbey. The story of his tragic death at the age of twenty-nine-a sacrifice, like Nathan Hale, who died in the same manner and under similar circumstances, to the cruel laws of war-has been often told, but can never become hackneyed. Appointed by General Clinton, commander-in-chief of the British forces, to negotiate with Benedict Arnold for the betrayal of West Point, he was taken within the American lines with the plans of the fortress in his boots, and was hanged as a spy on October 2d, 1780, at Tappan on the Hudson, his body being buried beneath the scaffold. His fate awakened universal sympathy. The whole British army went into mourning for him, and on the American side there was sincere mourning also. Many wept openly when he died, and the hand of Washington, it was said, could scarcely command the pen which signed the fatal warrant. After his death King George III pensioned his family, knighted his brother, and caused a sarcophagus to be erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey (south aisle of the Nave). A bas-relief on the face of this monument shows the figures of both Andre and Washington, the latter receiving the report of the Court of Inquiry, while a messenger approaches with a flag of truce and a letter, presumably from Clinton. Forty years later the bones were removed from their resting-place by the Hudson and taken to England, where they were interred close to the sarcophagus. When the body was exhumed a few locks of once-beautiful hair were found, and were sent to the dead man's sisters, while a peach tree, the roots of which had pierced the coffin, was taken up and planted in the King's garden at Carleton House. "The courtesy and good feeling of the Americans were remarkable," writes Dean Stanley. "The bier was decorated with garlands and flowers as it was transported to the ship." A hundred years after the execution the spot where the body had rested was marked by a monument erected by the late Cyrus W. Field, "not," as the inscription written by Dean Stanley says, "to perpetuate the record of strife, but in token of those better feelings which have since united two nations one in race, in language and religion." Andre was a young man of many gifts, of noble character and beautiful person, and his two monuments, one in the Abbey and the other on the Hudson, stand, like the cenotaphs of Wolfe and Howe, as mute and melancholy protests against the insensate folly which causes men to inflict such needless suffering upon each other, and waste in their savage quarrels the most precious gifts that heaven sends us.

As that Colonel Chester who has been alluded to above as the editor of the Register, to which we owe so much of our knowledge of Westminster Abbey, was an American, this article may fittingly close with an account of the great service which he rendered to the ancient church. Born in Greenwich, Conn., in 1821, he went to England at the age of thirty-eight to sell some patent rights, and, failing in his purpose, remained there to indulge his taste for genealogical research. At this time the records of the baptisms, marriages and burials which had taken place in the Abbey and its precincts had never been published in full, and such transcripts as were available were very unreliable. Colonel Chester proposed to Dean Stanley that he should undertake a partial transcript, with such notes as were necessary to identify the persons mentioned in the entries; but the Dean suggested that the plan should be enlarged to cover all of the records, and to this Colonel Chester consented. The undertaking was one involving tremendous labor, many a line and a half line in the completed work representing weeks of research; but it was a "labor of love," Colonel Chester has told us, and he was sustained by the thought that his name would be "perpetually connected with the glorious old minster." This seemed to him "something for an American to be proud of." The book was published in 1876 by the Harleian Society, and was dedicated "by her gracious permission" to the Queen, "as head of the Nation whose personal history it so greatly illustrates." Colonel Chester died in 1883, and a tablet in the South Aisle of the Choir commemorates the labors to which he gave so many years of his life. The inscription reads: "In grateful memory of the disinterested labour of an American master of English genealogical learning this tablet was erected by the Dean and Chapter of Westminster.'

To preserve memorials of such peculiar interest

to themselves, as well as those which they share with other branches of the Anglo-Saxon family, Americans may well contribute their share, and it is most fitting that the greatest of their gifts should have been made in the name of international peace. In this "temple of silence and reconciliation" the animosities which throughout the ages have divided the nations and drenched the world in blood fade into insignificance; its crowded tombs mock at the vanished glories of kings and conquerors; and its imperishable beauty, wrought in stone by patient unknown hands, bears perpetual witness to the greatness of the spirit of man which, through all the bloodshed and chicanery that stain the pages of history, still yearned for better and more satisfying things than could be obtained

by such means. The minds that conceived these heavenward-pointing towers, these soaring pillars and vaulted roofs; these cunning traceries, fretting the unyielding stone into forms of ethereal loveliness; and those that found joy in the results of their labors—were made for something better than treachery and strife; and it is impossible to think of the glorious pile they have bequeathed to us without recalling the vision of the poet who sleeps within its walls, when he "dipt into the future, far as human eye could see," and beheld a world in which

"The war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle

flags were furled

In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world."

### Panama Canal and Recent World Politics

GUY V. PRICE, A.M., SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COLONY, KANSAS.

For more than three centuries the Panama Canal has been the subject of general international concern, and for more than fifty years has been the object of intense practical effort by one or more of the great powers. The opening up of the Isthmus was but an incident in the great world movement of exploration and discovery which admitted America to civilization and expanded Europe. Men of bold imagination hoped to construct a canal long before the work was undertaken by the United States Government. "Since the golden age of discovery inaugurated by Columbus the quest for an all-water way from Europe to the Far East, across the Atlantic and Pacific, has been a world obsession. The idea has possessed the minds of navigators, shippers, business men, admirals and governments. Dozens of projects for the forcing of the passage have been advanced; thousands of lives have been lost in the efforts."

The rapid development of the maritime commerce of the United states and the rapid infilling of population in the Great West kept alive the possibility of piercing the barrier separating the east and west coasts. References to the canal may be found in the messages of almost all the Presidents since the civil war. In 1877, during Grant's administration, a draft of a treaty looking to the neutralization of the Isthmian route was prepared, "to which it was proposed to obtain the accession of the principal Maritime Powers." But, as viewed by Secretary of State Fish, "the proposal of a protectorate over the canal, in which other maritime powers should be joined with the United States in equal control . . . would be a source of future trouble. "The President," he said, "regards it as an American enterprise; which he desires to be undertaken under American auspices, to the benefit of which the whole commercial world

should be fully admitted." This renunciation of joint control was clearly going beyond the theory of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and foreshadows the Hay-Pauncefote treaty giving full power to the United States in the building and administration of the canal.

But Fish did not go as far as President Hayes, who announced a policy of the paramount interest of the United States. The President said: "The policy of this country is a canal under American control. The United States cannot consent to the surrender of this control to any European power or to any combination of European powers. If the existing treaties between the United States and other nations . . . stand in the way of this policy suitable steps should be taken by just and liberal negotiations to promote and establish the American policy on this subject" . . . Then followed his famous pronouncement: "An interoceanic canal across the American Isthmus . . . will be the great ocean thoroughfare between our Atlantic and Pacific shores, and virtually a part of the coast line of the United States." The real purpose of Hayes seems to have been to focus attention upon the attempted construction of the Canal by the French Canal Company. But it may be taken as a prelude to Blaine's attempt, in 1881, to secure a modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. On June 24th in his instructions to Lowell he characterized the treaty as "misunderstandingly entered into, imperfectly comprehended and mutually vexatious." He asserted that the United States "does not seek to have any exclusive privileges accorded to American ships in respect to precedence of tolls through an interoceanic canal. The extent of the privileges of American ships is measurable under the treaty of 1846 by those of Colombian citizens and ships. It would be our earnest desire and expectation to see the world's peaceful commerce enjoy the same just, liberal and ra-

<sup>1</sup> Official Handbook of the Panama Canal (1915), p. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> J. B. Moore: International Law Digest, II, 187.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Quoted by A. B. Hart: Monroe Doctrine: An Interpretation, p. 186.

tional treatment." It was under such self-denying declarations that Lowell was to seek a modification

of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty.

President Cleveland took occasion to reassert the Clayton-Bulwer principles in this language, Dec. 8, 1885: Whatever highway may be constructed across the barriers dividing the maritime areas of the world must be for the world's benefit, a trust for mankind, to be removed from the chance of domination by a single power, nor become a point of irritation for hostilities or a prize for warlike ambition." President Roosevelt asserted: "If ever a government could be said to have received a mandate from civilization to effect an object, the accomplishment of which was demanded in the interest of mankind, the United States holds that position with respect to the Panama Canal."

Secretary Hay successfully guided the negotiations so that the second draft of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty was concluded on November 18, 1901. Soon after the ratification of the treaty, in 1902, Congress passed the Spooner Act, which authorized the President to purchase the rights of the French Company and proceed with the construction of the canal under certain terms to be granted by Colombia. If he should be unable to obtain control over the Panama route from Colombia he was to negotiate with Nicaragua on such terms as he might consider reasonable. Senator Hanna had previously been convinced by Philippe Bunau-Varilla and William Nelson Cromwell that his fears of earthquakes in the Panama region were not well grounded. The campaign gift by Cromwell of sixty thousand dollars to the Republican campaign fund and the plank in the Republican platform favoring the Panama route should not be overlooked. On January 27, 1903, the Hay-Herran treaty with Colombia was accepted by the Senate of the United States. On August 12 it was rejected by the Colombian Senate. Meanwhile the New Canal Company was alarmed and M. Varilla hurried from Paris to New York. He announced a dynamic solution of the Panama problem as a revolution which he predicted would take place on November 3d. President Roosevelt, in a letter to Albert Shaw, of the Review of Reviews, declared that he was convinced that "there was not the slightest chance of securing by treaty" the Panama route from Colombia, but that he cast aside the proposition to "foment the secession of Panama." He frankly admitted, however, that "privately I should be delighted if Panama were an independent state." But he did not, in his own words, "lift my finger to incite the revolutionists. I simply ceased to stamp out the different revolutionary fuses that were already burning."

But it turned out that the part taken by the United States in the revolution started by a junta of Panama business men, by landing marines was important, while the part played by the other was unimportant.

Reviewing the affair later, in a letter to Professor Thayer, President Roosevelt said: "I did my best to get them (Colombians) to act straight. Then I determined that I would do what ought to be done without regard to them. . . . If they (Panamanians) had not revolted, I should have recommended Congress to take possession of the Isthmus by force of arms. . . . Then they revolted, I promptly used the navy to prevent the bandits, who had tried to hold us up, from spending months of futile bloodshed in conquering . . . the Isthmus, to the lasting damage of the Isthmus, of us and of the world. I did not consult Hay or Root or anyone else as to what I did, because a council of war does not fight; and I. intended to do the job once for all." Later at the Panama Pacific International Exposition he announced that "I took the Isthmus." Furthermore, he asserted: "It is an infamy to pay 25 millions, or any other sum, to Colombia." The President's course has been warmly criticized and defended. He himself, in one of his last books, earnestly protested against the Colombian indemnity, declaring that "Every action was in accordance with the highest principles of national, international and private morality. The honor of the United States, and the interests not only of the United States but of the world, demanded the building of the canal. The canal could not have been built, it would not now have been begun, had our national government not acted precisely as it did act in 1903." One aim of the President was to hasten action on Panama and thus prevent a reconsideration of the Nicarauguan route. The President's contention that independent action on his part was necessary because of the ineffectiveness of Congressional methods should not be disregarded by the students of American government. Thus recently the Chicago Tribune and the Chicago Daily News, both Republican newspapers, advised adjournment of Congress on the ground of general Congressional ineffectiveness.

In spite of the President's unceasing campaign to convince the people of the righteousness of his action there remained an influential group both in and out of Congress who favored giving an indemnity to Colombia. Secretary of State Bryan proposed a treaty which apologized to Colombia and which contained an indemnity of 25 millions. The treaty was submitted in its essential form, but with the apology omitted in express language by President Harding and was accepted by the Senate on April 20, 1921, by a vote of 59-19. Fifteen of the opposing votes came from Republicans who regarded the treaty as impugning the conduct of the former President, but many who opposed the treaty submitted by Bryan, favored it when submitted by Harding. Not without influence was the discovery of valuable oil fields in Colombia and the desire to placate Colombia in order that American capitalists might compete more successfully with Europeans and others in the attempt

to secure concessions.

<sup>\*</sup>Foreign Relations of the United States, No. 341, p. 568 (1881).

<sup>\*</sup>Story of Panama, Hearings on the Rainey Resolution before the Committee on Foreign Affairs, Washington (1913), p. 71.

W. R. Thayer: Life of Hay, II, 323.

Literary Digest, May 7, 1921.

The Republic of Panama was proclaimed on November 4, 1903, and was recognized by the United States on November 6th. Soon afterward there was ratified the Hay-Buanau Varilla treaty, which gave to the United States in perpetuity a strip of land ten miles in width, a monopoly for the construction of any system of communication by means of a canal between the Caribbean and the Pacific. For this right the United States agreed to pay Panama the sum of 10 million dollars and 250,000 dollars annually, nine years after the coming into effect of the convention, during the life of the treaty. Article XIX gave to Panama the right to transport its troops and vessels of war without paying charges of any kind. The treaty recently signed with Colombia also repeats in effect this article.

The promise of the completion of the canal by Colonel Goethals by 1913 stirred Congress to enact appropriate legislation. Congress enacted, and, on August 24, 1912, President Taft approved an Act for the opening and maintenance of the Canal Zone. Section V of the Act contained the provision that "No tolls shall be levied upon vessels engaged in the coastwise trade of the United States." On November 9, 1912, the British Government sent in a protest. The protest was presented by Ambassador Bryce and was signed by Sir Edward Grey. The protest is based on the contention that Section V of the Panama Canal Act violates Clause I, Article Three of the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. This important clause asserts: "The Canal shall be free and open to the vessels of war and of commerce of all nations observing the rules, on terms of entire equality so that there shall be no discrimination against any such nation, or its citizens or subjects, in respect of the conditions or charges of traffic or otherwise.

In the United States the protest was much debated. Reams of the Congressional Record are devoted to it. Various reports were compiled by scientific and commercial bodies. Opinion in America was much divided, but two issues were clear: Did the Panama Canal Act violate the Hay-Pauncefote treaty; and was exemption of vessels owned by citizens of the United States engaged in coastwise trade from the payment of tolls desirable from a national and economic point of view. In support of the opinions the entire negotiation of the Panama Canal treaties was reviewed. On behalf of exemption it was urged that:

1. The Panama Canal was to be neutralized under substantially the same rules as were adopted in the Constantinople Convention of October 28, 1888, for the neutralization of the Suez Canal. But three days after the Constantinople Convention was accepted the British announced a general reservation to the effect that nothing in the Convention should interfere with the liberty of action of the Government during the occupation of Egypt by Her Majesty's forces. Lord Curzon explained to the House of Commons on July 2, 1898, that "the terms of the Constantinople Convention have not been brought into practical operation," and a writer in the London Spectator, December 10, 1898, asserted: "In reality

\* Holland: Studies in International Law, p. 293 (1898).

the neutrality of the Convention was never brought into force and is now a dead letter. . . . The Suez is not internationalized, but is under the control of the power that controls Egypt." Thus by analogy it could be argued that the special geographical position of the United States compelled it to take control of the canal and consequently the term "all nations" did not include the United States, but only the nations observing the rules laid down.

2. It was argued that equality of ships did not prevent the United States from granting special favors to its coasting trade, which it was asserted, is usually given preferential treatment. Moreover, Great Britain had admitted that the United States had the right to fortify the canal and the ships of the United States Government must have free passage as a part of the protective system."

3. It was intimated in some quarters that the Hav-Pauncefote treaty was not binding since the conditions had changed. Judge Seabury contended that the subject-matter of the treaty, which the treaty contemplated should continue to be territory alien to the United States, has become absolutely subject to the United States. Therefore, he said that since treaties are ratified under the tacit assumption of rebus sic stantibus that the acquisition of Panama changed the binding nature of the treaty.10 The contention is sufficiently answered by reference to the treaty article which asserts that no change of territorial sovereignty shall affect the obligation of the contracting parties. Furthermore, it is the accepted rule of good international law that no nation can abrogate a treaty without an amicable agreement with the contracting nations unless it is prepared to assert its policy by force of arms. The British, naturally enough, would not accept this plea. "They consider that by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty the United States has surrendered the right to construct the canal, and that by the Hay-Pauncefote treaty they had recovered that right upon the footing that the canal should be open to British and United States vessels upon terms of equal treatment."

Against exemption it was contended that the words "all nations" cannot be interpreted in such a way as will not include the United States in its provisions even if all the declarations of fair and equal treatment of successive Presidents and the treaties are disregarded. Secondly, it was contended that the shipping industry was already highly protected and that if protection was essential it should be extended to all shipping of the United States and not simply to the estimated ten per cent. which would be engaged in coastwise trade. The Majority Report of the House said: "It is a catchy phrase, plausible, sophistical and misleading, that 'we can use our own canal for own benefit,' which is the slogan of the small special interests demanding preferential tolls. In principle and theory the Government and the people are identical . . . but one per cent. or less of our population financially interested in ships can

Diplomatic History of the Panama Canal, p. 95.

<sup>30</sup> Outlook, March 8, 1913, pp. 537-545.

hardly be regarded as the sole beneficiaries of the Treasury." Revelation of the fact that 61.9 per cent. of the Atlantic and Gulf tonnage and 19.8 per cent. of the Pacific seaboard tonnage was owned and operated by the railroads, added considerable weight to the argument that exemption was the plea of special interests." A third objection against exemption was developed by Professor Johnson. He pointed out that the possibility of exemption would lead all shippers to trans-ship their goods at American ports into vessels engaged in coastwise trade in order to avoid tolls and thus all goods would be destined for American ports, reloaded and no tolls at all being collected for foreign commerce. It is difficult to settle upon just what constitutes bona fide coastwise traffic.12

This argument, when coupled with the realization that the canal should in the end pay for itself, made an irresistible appeal to the taxpayer. But it should be pointed out that this phase of the matter is more clearly apprehended now than then. It was estimated that the annual cost of operation and maintenance of the canal including interest on the original investment of \$375,000,000 and the annuity to Panama would be \$19,500,000. It was estimated that the total tonnage by 1925 would reach 16,000,000. The total expenses charged to maintenance and operation alone of the canal by 1920 amounted to \$36,657,-766.89. The revenues amounted to \$34,426,675.28, or the deficit amounted to about \$2,000,000.13 The canal to date, including the indemnity to Colombia, has cost \$475,000,000. The canal reduces the distances from east and west coast ports of the United States by almost eight thousand miles. This reduction, it was contended, gave a sufficient stimulus and aid to coastwise trade. The canal reduces distances from San Francisco to Hamburg and Liverpool by 40 per cent. Traffic on the canal shows a continuing upward trend. The highest record for a month's traffic is March, 1921, when the traffic amounted to 1.112,813 tons and the tolls, \$1,105,536.15. It is even suggested that the time will come when the canal will not accommodate the traffic seeking passage. The foreign commerce of the United States in 1920 reached a total of \$13,000,000,000. Not all of the increase was due to increase in the amount of commodities, but to a great increase in prices. Yet the commerce taken over a ten-year period at least equals the formula laid down by Henry Adams in his law of acceleration, namely, the industrial output doubles every ten years.14

It was suggested that if the United States did not wish to retire from the position taken on the tolls question, the whole matter should be referred to arbitration. The United States had concluded a treaty with Great Britain in 1908 which provided: "Differences

of a legal nature or relating to the interpretation of treaties shall be referred to the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague . . . provided, nevertheless, they do not affect the vital interests. independence or the honor of the two contracting states, and do not concern the interests of third parties." The Bryan treaties on arbitration which have not been ratified, showed an even stronger favor toward arbitration: "The high contracting parties," ran one of the treaties, "agree that all disputes between them of every nature whatsoever, to the settlement of which previous arbitration treaties and agreements do not apply in their terms or are not applied in fact, shall, when diplomatic methods of adjustment have failed. be referred for international investigation and report to an international commission."

At this point President Wilson took an effective hand. In a brief message to Congress he urged "the redemption of every obligation without quibble or hesitation." He said: "In my own judgment, very fully considered and maturely formed, exemption constitutes a mistaken policy from every point of view, and is, moreover, in plain contravention of the treaty with Great Britain concerning the canal, concluded on November 18, 1901." "We are," he said, "too big, too powerful, too self-respecting a nation to interpret with too strained or refined a reading the words of our own promises just because we have power enough to give us leave to read them as we please." "The plea was effective and on June 15, 1914, the repeal bill received the approval of the President.

The tolls controversy was probably influential in arousing a fear that some other powers, dissatisfied with the management of the canal by the United States, might build a canal via Nicaragua. At any rate, on February 26, 1913, the Senate took into consideration a proposed convention with Nicaragua, negotiated with the object of granting to the United States the exclusive privilege of constructing a canal in that region. That convention was ratified by Nicaragua in 1914, and by the Senate of the United States, February 18, 1916. Article One of the treaty provided: "The Government of Nicaragua grants in perpetuity to the Government of the United States, forever free from all taxation or other public charge, the exclusive proprietary rights necessary and convenient for the construction, operation and maintenance of an interoceanic canal by way of the San Juan River and the Great Lake of Nicaragua or by any other route over the Nicaraguan territory." The spirit back of the Nicaraguan treaty is reflected to some degree in President Wilson's Mobile address in which he declared that "concessions" to foreign capitalists were "dangerous and apt to become intolerable." He pledged the United States to "emancipation from the subordination,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Huebner: "Economic Aspects of the Panama Canal," Amer. Econ. Rev., Dec. 1915.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> North American Review, vol. 199, pp. 545ff.

<sup>18</sup> Panama Canal Record, October 27, 1920.

<sup>34</sup> Education of Honry Adams.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> Quoted by W. E. Lingelbach: Annals of American Academy, July, 1921.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Text of President's Message in American Year Book, 1914, p. 24.

<sup>17</sup> Treaty Series, No. 624, Washington, 1916.

which has been inevitable, to foreign enterprise," and he reassured the rest of America that the United States had no imperialistic intent: "I want to take this occasion to say that the United States will never again seek one foot of territory by conquest." The extension of the interest of the United States in the Caribbean region is shown more clearly in the Lodge resolution in the Magdalena Bay episode. The resolution read: "Resolved, That when any harbor or other place in the American continent is so situated that the occupation thereof for naval or military purposes might threaten the communications or safety of the United States, the Government of the United States could not see without grave concern the possession of such harbor . . . by any corporation or association which has such relation to another government as to give that government practical power of control for national purposes." In 1916 the Danish West Indies were purchased at a cost of \$25,000,000.

Now that it has been decided that remission of tolls is in violation of the treaty, what has been done to advance the interests of an American Merchant Marine? During the war approximately three billions of dollars were spent on merchant ship construction. In 1914 the tonnage which flew the American flag amounted to 4,287,000 tons, and in June, 1919, the gross tonnage was 11,983,000, or an increase of 278 per cent. A permanent policy is still to be worked out. Chairman Jones, of the Senate Committee, declared that the "ultimate purpose of legislation should be the establishment of a policy under which an adequate merchant marine will be developed under private ownership."

It was a very earnest hope that the Panama Canal by equalizing commercial opportunities would have a pacific influence on international relations. A solution of the world's pressing food problems, to which the canal should contribute, would be an immense gain for peace. One of the conditions of the peace laid down by President Wilson was the "the removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance." " Peace must be supported by sound economic agreements. The canal administered on terms of equality, as provided in the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, will eliminate one cause of international friction. Now is certainly no time to revive the issue and provoke international hostility. Revival of the issue as has been hinted once or twice recently in Congress, and which was injected into the Presidential campaign by the President in his Des Moines speech, October 8, 1920, can only lead to distrust of our desire to promote world peace. Discussion of the tolls issue would lead to suspicion upon which armament competition thrives. The world's armament rivalry has so far been amenable to no control that statesmen have devised and is ever consuming the well-being and vitality of peoples. "Isn't it time," asks General Pershing, "for an awakening among enlightened peoples to the end that leading powers may reach some rational agreement which would not only relieve the world of this terrible load, but which would in itself be a long step toward the prevention of war?" " General Bliss has said that "the question of limitation of armaments is of serious concern to the great Powers alone, which are small in number. The hope of getting the consent of these lies in their utter exhaustion from the last war and the universal dread of a similar one in the future. If any one of these great Powers should positively refuse to consider the question of limitation of its armament, it would be equivalent to a declaration that it proposes to carry out its national policies by force of arms, if necessary." " President Harding in his inaugural address declared that "we are ready to associate ourselves with the nations of the world, great and small, for conference, for counsel, to seek the expressed views of world opinion, to recommend a way to approximate disarmament and relieve the crushing burdens of military and naval establishments." The conference at which the President here hinted has become a matter of practical politics, and will be held in Washington, November 11, 1921. It is recognized that national armament has to be determined with reference to the aims of the other powers. Civilization has become international. Civilization has been compared to a vast Gothic vault: one of its arches being America, the other, Europe. If one is weakened the other is endangered." Europe, caught in a net of treaties, distracted at once by civil and international war, needs peace.34

On October 10, 1921, the Senate, by a vote of 47 to 37 reversed its position taken in 1914 and concurred in remitting the tolls on American ships engaged in coastwise trade. This is the fourth time the Senate has voted on the tolls question. This question threatens to become another perennial issue in American politics. The continuing upward trend of commerce passing through the canal makes the pledge of tolls exemption a sop to give special transportation interests or serves as a means of discrediting the foreign policy of an existing administration. How difficult this political jugglery renders the path of a conscientious diplomat is revealed with sufficient clarity in the London letters of Walter H. Page, U. S. ambassador to Great Britain during the time of the tolls controversy, 1913-14. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty pledging equality to all nations still stands. It is quite likely that the British protest will be reasserted and in the meantime the exemption will produce suspicion on which the armament competition thrives.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Congressional Record, Nov. 6, 1919, p. 8627.

<sup>\*</sup>What Really Happened at Paris, House and Seymour, p. 312.

<sup>21</sup> Independent, Jan. 21, 1921.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid, p. 500

<sup>23</sup> Guglielmo Ferrero: Problems of Peace, N. Y., 1919.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> G. L. Dickinson: "SOS, Europe to America, Atlantic Monthly, Feb., 1921.

# The Dante Festa at Florence

The third and last of the Florentine festas given this year to commemorate the six-hundredth anniversary of the death of the "Altissimo poeta," began Wednesday, September 14th, with a solemn High Mass in Santa Croce, the Cardinal-archbishop celebrating, and a choir of male voices, accompanied by the organ and a full orchestra, furnishing magnificent music. The dim old church could not have been lovelier, for candles gleamed from every altar and the beautiful vestments of the clergy gave a touch of color to the faded frescoes. The great central door was open the only time during the week, but even so, the "dim, religious light" within was as softly mysterious as ever. The church was absolutely packed. Every inch of standing room was taken, and the side-altars were full of tiny children perched solemnly between the candles.

Visitors to Italy this summer will remember the twenty-four great paintings, modern illustrations of the Commedia, which hung between the columns in the nave of the church. All day people came to see these, people from every walk in life, from dirty little street Arabs, and servants in kitchen aprons with market baskets on their arms, to University professors and city officials, who this week at least, formed the upper layer of the social order. It was most interesting, and at times amusing, to hear the various comments and explanations made by the various groups. I heard one dirty little urchin in a red plush pinafore, tell his little brother that Dante painted those pictures, and that Dante built the church!

Another little chap tucked a bunch of faded cosmos in the folds of the robes of one of the figures on the Cenotaph, and then stepped back to look at it, his beautiful, sensitive face all aglow. Curious to know what motive prompted him, I asked him why he had put those flowers there.

"For Dante."

"And who is Dante?"

"He is the greatest poet. He is for Italy and for us all," and then after a moment, he looked up at me and said: "Is he for you, too?"

In the afternoon the students of the "Instituto di Studi Superiori" placed a bronze wreath on the Cenotaph-of laurel it was, with a hand holding a flaming torch rising from the center. About five hundred students met in the Piazza San Marco and marched down Via Cavour, past the Duomo to the Palazzo Vecchio and thence to Santa Croce, singing their university song, and accompanied, of course, by soldiers. The men wore velvet berrette like those worn by princes in the 15th century paintings, closefitting with an upturned band on which were fastened medals of gold, silver or bronze. Some had none, some had many, but most of them had two or three. These caps were red, green, pink, yellow, purple, blue, blue and red, or black and white, corresponding, I was told, to the department of the University in which each was registered. It formed the only evidence of academic dress that I saw. Several women marched, but only one wore a berretta.

The wreath was unveiled by the chairman of the student "Committee for the Commemoration of Dante," who later gave a most eloquent address. Other speeches were made by Professor Pareti and Professor Pistelli, both of whom emphasized the patriotic example given the youth of today, by the great poet. And then the students-without the accompaniment of soldiers-joined hands and marched twelve abreast up the streets in the twilight, singing songs which were most suggestive of those heard on American campuses. The University standard, white with purple facings, bore the red lily of the Commune, and other banners bore the names of men associated with the University, who had distinguished themselves in letters, or leadership. I noticed particularly the names of Giosue Carducci and Cesare Battista.

Thursday morning there was a most unusual Horticultural Display in the Royal Botanical Gardens in Via Bolognese. The flowers were so skilfully arranged as to leave impressions of each one rather than a confused and shapeless mass of colors. The cotton plant attracted much attention. The papers say that after some years of experimenting, Italy is now ready to introduce the culture of this plant on a large scale. There were also some beautiful wax models of fruits and flowers, the work of a Floren-

In the afternoon the visiting officials were given a reception at the Palazzo Vecchio, after which the city paid homage to the poet, in Santa Croce. The city was beautifully decorated. Every fountain was playing; every house had its flags of silk, cotton or paper, and those in the principal streets had garlands of laurel across the front, and tapestries hanging from the windows of the Palazzo Vecchio, and below these were tapestries bearing the Medici coat-of-arms. Still lower down the facade was all but covered with huge tapestries representing scenes from the life of San Giovanni. Tapestries covered the walls of the Loggia dei Lanzi, likewise, and the grim walls of the Palazzo Strozzi were softened by velvet panels of exquisite colors, which hung from the windows almost covering three sides. The gay facade of the Palazzo dell' Antilla in Piazza Santa Croce was hidden by hangings of blue velvet and yellow damask, and the Palazzo Borghese looked most royal with its golden crests and monograms on crimson arazzi. One hotel had red "puffs" hanging out of the windows. And they were not uneffective. Moreover, they were certainly well sunned after three days of "southern exposure." In the Piazza Santa Croce were purple standards surmounted by gold crests from which floated tri-color pennants, and half way up each standard was a basket of flowers. Ropes of laurel connected these, making a most artistic approach to the beautiful white church.

The narrow streets between the Palazzo Vecchio and Santa Croce were packed, but no one minds a Florentine crowd, it is so good-natured and generous. Yet as the Cortes passed between the lines of spectators, kept in place by soldiers in "high" uniform, these gay-hearted folk were for once serious—were sad, as if they saw it as a National Pilgrimage, and remembered all the six centuries of strife and bloodshed which lay between the dream of their exiled poet, and its realization, now symbolized by the red, white and green banner of a united Italy.

The Cortes consisted of two parts—the historical pageant under the direction of Professor Biazi, Director of the Laurenzian and Riccar di Libraries, and Italy's great authority on social customs of old days—and the procession of representatives from various Italian towns and cities. In the first were men and women representing all classes of society in 13th Century Florence—soldiers, priests, laborers, courtiers, ladies, children—and the costuming was most artistic. There were two floats—the Carrocio, or old movable altar taken to the battlefields so that the priests might bless the fighting and the dying; and the Martinella, or war-bell, surrounded by soldiers.

Most of the representatives of the various cities wore medieval costume, likewise, and they bore tributes for the Cenotaph in the shape of flowers or wreaths. Their standards were of silk, beautifully embroidered, even bejewelled, and of every imaginable color. Behind them came representatives of every conceivable organization, political, religious, civil, economic, educational, sanitary, learned and professional. Even the papers did not presume to list them all. All bore beautiful banners, however, as did the soldiers and sailors. Among the former (clad in unpicturesque khaki), were the Garibaldean veterans in red shirts. And how they were cheered!

As the multitude of bandiere streamed up the steps of Santa Croce, it was like a river of light, but inside the church, the air of meditative sanctity was unchanged. Indeed it seemed to soften into a sad but exquisite harmony all that had been so gay out of doors. Nothing could have been more dignified, more impressive, more significant than the lowering of those banners as each passed the Cenotaph. If Santa Croce did not hold Dante's body that day, it certainly held his spirit, and I pity anyone who could have watched the spectacle unmoved. Of course, those at Ravenna saw much that was inspiring, especially when the door of the sarcophagus, fused out of an Austrian cannon, was unveiled, but Ravenna could hardly have furnished so beautiful and appropriate a setting as did Florence-particularly as every street corner here is marked by a passage from the Divine Comedy.

On Friday, the column on the field of Campaldino, where in 1289, Dante distinguished himself by his bravery, in a battle between his Guelf countrymen and Arezzo aided by the Tuscan Ghibellines. It was about twenty miles up the Arno, in a region of magnificent views. The column itself is quite simple,

and is surmounted by a block of marble on which are carved the arms of Florence and of the Guelfs. On the front is the inscription:

"Corridor vidi per la terra vostra

O aretini e vidi gir gualdane . . ." Inf. xxii. on the left:—

"L esercito di Italia in Santa Croce di Firenze inclinava le gloriose bandiere dinanzi all' effige del divino poeta e qui nel campo funestato

da guerre fraterne simboleggiava in questa colonna la forze delle armi nazionali per la tutela del diritto italiano."

on the right:—
"In Campaldino
nel nome di Dante
che qui fu milite per il suo Comune
Firenze ed Arezzo

consacrano
colle nefaste memorie delle guerre fratricide
il patto dell' italiana fraternita."

on the back:-

"Secentenario Dantesco MCMXII."

In the walls of the neighboring castle of Poppi a tablet was unveiled on which was inscribed:— .

"Toscani contro toscani sotto queste mura atrocemente puguarono ed era tra loro Dante Alighieri tra queste mura qualche anno dops egli poso esule doloroso della sua patria

Tali memorie
volle qui ricordate il Comune di Pappi
Nel sesto centenario della morte di lui
paderia della patria italiana
alfine gloriosamente ricostituita
nella unita' che egli invocava fraterna
MCMXXI."

The dignitaries had a banquet in the castle; the hoi polloi ate outside and, I am glad to state, left no litter behind.

Here, as on other important occasions during the festa, aeroplanes circled over us, dropping showers of red, white and green paper—a most effective demonstration!

Saturday was the greatest day of all for His Majesty, Victor Emmanuel III, came to Florence. He comes so seldom that this alone would have brought crowds of visitors to the city. The station was decorated with plants and hung with crimson velvet—until it looked much more like a royal palace than so ordinary and practical a place as it really is. Cannon boomed when the royal train approached, but except for this the royal guest might have been a private citizen, so simple and unpretentious was his arrival: "like a father visiting his children, not like a monarch before his subjects." He was taken to the Palazzo Vecchio at once—where a reception was held, and where the Dante Society gave him a critical

text of the poet's works and the University, a gold medal commemorating the centennial. After this, two heralds appeared on the little balcony and announced his coming with blasts of their silver trumpets. Then the King stepped out—and the mob of people nearly went wild. Again and again he was recalled. Surely if all Italy is as loyal as Florence, this monarch need not fear for his throne! For once all Communist grumblings against a monarchy were silenced. As one of the papers poetically expressed it:—"Florence ceased to be a city, and became a great harmony of homage to the King—grand and beautiful as the masterpieces of her greatest men!" (How poorly it translates, but Italian emotions can not be well expressed in English.)

In the afternoon, the pageant was repeated, the King and guests of honor reviewing it from the Loggia dei Lanzi, and at seven he left. The skies were blue, during the whole festa, but it was as hot as July, which in Italy, at least, is now a synonym for utter depravity on the part of the weather man!

Today (Sunday) is cloudy and oppressive, and the city looks bedraggled and exhausted. A few banners are still up—a few tapestries still out; in the Biblioteca Laurenziana a Dante Collection is being "inaugurated." What guests are left, go this afternoon to San Godenza and inspect the newly-restored Abbey, and at nine o'clock, as on the other days, there will be concerts in all the piazzas—but everyone and everything, looks weary and rather soiled.

The Festa is over! But it was wonderful—according to the papers, one of the three greatest Florence has ever had. What will happen before the next Centenary? Does anyone dare try to prophesy?

### The Lecture Method: An Indictment

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It is commonly agreed that the quality of instruction in our educational system falls inexcusably far short of the ideal. And those best qualified to judge hold that the poorest teaching of all is to be found in the colleges and universities. Many factors contribute to give the higher institutions of learning this unflattering rank, but perhaps none to a greater degree than the extensive use—and the consequent abuse—of the lecture method of teaching. In this regard the history faculties are among the worst sinners.

The lecture played an important and essential part in the medieval education system: in the absence of printing presses—to say nothing of the lack of text-books—the chief means of imparting knowledge open to the teacher was the formal discourse. And even in this later day of the printed page the lecture has legitimate uses in the world of learning. As the only means open to the teacher who is an original investigator to present the results of his researches which he has not yet had an opportunity to publish, it has a most honored place. Employed for the purpose of interpretation, it may also perform an occasional service.

But there seems to be absolutely no justification for the retention of the lecture method in fields long since adequately supplied with textbooks or with reference works suitable for use with a syllabus; and yet it seems safe to estimate that about three-fourths of the courses covering such fields are, in the higher institutions of learning—and especially in the large universities—based upon the lecture.

Very commonly, students in these courses are required to purchase textbooks, and are held responsible for their contents through written quizzes; and usually they buy them willingly, in order to have something to which to "anchor," in case they cannot decipher or comprehend their hastily-scribbled lecture notes.

The course based upon the lecture with the text or reference book playing minor parts, if they appear at all, is repeated year after year; and the so-called teacher justifies the procedure by explaining that his lectures are quite different from the text. But the variation can be but slight in a general course, for the facts of history cannot be altered. It might be suggested in passing that any person who has a better understanding of the period covered than the author of the best existing text would seem to owe it to the world to incorporate this superior knowledge in the form of a textbook as soon as possible.

The most obvious objection to the use of the lecture when text and reference books are available is the needless waste of time. Students spend scores of hours every semester feverishly scribbling down information which would be immediately available in print, and usually in more accurate form; for a person preparing for a class-room lecture, will hardly guard against error to the degree that a scholar does when writing for publication; and, furthermore, students are quite certain to make additional mistakes in writing their notes as well as in deciphering them.

The lecture method, through the introduction of assistants as go-betweens, tends also to remove the ostensible teacher further from his class. Though these "middle-men" are commonly inexperienced young persons working for advanced degrees, upon them falls the actual work of teaching. They quiz the class orally at intervals, conduct formal examinations, meet students in conference, and grade examination papers and note-books. Meanwhile, the professor whose name is attached to the course remains afar off in splendid isolation, unhampered by even a bowing acquaintance with the members of his class. More often than not, the students enrolled in the courses left to the mercy of callow middle-men are freshmen, who, because of their unadjusted condition,

should be given the best instruction that the institution affords.

In courses based upon the original research of the lecturer, the combination of lecturer and assistant seems justifiable if the class is large; for a real historian blest with the gift of clarity may, even through the long-distance contact of the lecture, inspire and stimulate to a remarkable degree. But such scholar-teachers are rare, and make use of but a small fraction of the great army of history assistants abroad in our land. Most of the underlings are to be found in charge of the old-established courses already mentioned, which is quite inexcusable. If classes in these courses are too large to be handled by one person—as they often are—it would be vastly better to give each of the "assistants" full charge of a number of the sections and have the students study from text, or from syllabus and reference works; for certainly the assistants are as well qualified to conduct quizzes and discussions on printed matter as on lectures. It might improve the general standard of work, however, to have a person more experienced and mature than the rest act as sponsor for the quality of the work of the course and confer upon him a certain degree of supervisorial power.

The most serious objection to the unnecessary use of the lecture method is, however, that the lecture does not educate; it does not develop the mind of the student through training him to think. It permits him to be largely a passive recipient of information rather than making him an active and eager seeker after knowledge; it delivers the facts of history in a "fully-cooked, pre-digested" form which requires little exertion on the part of the student to get such intellectual nourishment as it has to offer.

The lecture does not even train and strengthen the memory, but, rather, weakens it; for through the use of three channels to the brain-ear, eye, and handmemorizing is made too easy. If the formal discourse is the most educative, why is it not employed in the elementary and secondary schools, where most attention has been given to sound pedagogical principles?

If, instead of having information spooned out to them in the form of lectures, students are required to acquire it from the unfamiliar printed page of text and reference book, organize it in shape for recitation, and turn it over in their minds in connection with class discussions conducted by a live teacher who knows how to ask questions, intellectual development is fostered and the thinking habit has at least a fighting chance of being established.

But why is the lecture method so commonly used if it is not based upon sound pedagogical principles? Many are the reasons. The majority of the so-called teachers in colleges and universities are without formal training in the principles of pedagogy, and the most of these unthinkingly follow the method of the college teacher whom they liked best as studentsnot necessarily the best teacher-usually a lecturer. A few who think reach the same result through the assumption that students are educated in proportion as they are interested; and they, therefore, resort to various cheap, dramatic devices in the lecture to excite and hold the attention and interest of the class. They overlook the fact that interest making for sound intellectual growth must come through the effort of the student himself, in direct attack upon the subject; and they never learn that artificial stimuli of the circus-poster and electric-sign character simply create an appetite for more thrills of the same sort, and turn students from, in place of attracting them to, the reference library; for the person who has been spoon-fed is likely to find foraging for himself a dry and dreary occupation.

Like other folk, most teachers are as lazy as they dare to be. It takes less time and energy to work up a lecture than it does to prepare for a recitation and discussion; for, if the students have no chance to penetrate it by questions, a very thin veneer of information is sufficient to keep the lecturer going and the class busy until the bell rings. And if the lecturer is sufficiently methodical and far-sighted to write out his lectures or to take copious notes at the outset, a vast amount of time and energy will be saved; for he can, and often does, use the same notes vear after vear.

The lecture also makes an admirable "smoke screen" gladly resorted to by those who are aware that they do not know how to teach-how to make intelligent assignments, to ask thought-provoking questions, and to criticise helpfully student answers. By means of the lecture this weakness may be concealed from the powers that be for a long time, and even indefinitely. Furthermore, the lecture, as such, may be a failure-poorly organized, deadly dull, and supremely inane-but the student victims have little chance to realize this, since they are kept too busy taking notes upon it, to secure a perspective.

In fact, some keepers of the class-room who lack dignity and forcefulness, as well as knowledge of how to teach, gratefully resort to the lecture as a variety of "busy work" for their students, well knowing that if they proceeded less formally the problem of "discipline" might prove their professional Waterloo.

One naturally desires to "succeed"; and is not promotion the most convincing evidence of success?

The faculty person with a strongly-developed ego finds teaching by formal oral discourse especially attractive, for it nurses his sense of self-importance. From his guaranteed audience he receives and willingly accepts the homage due only to the original investigator; for how can his unsophisticated students guess that the information, and even the jokes. which he presents with such aplomb, glibness, and air of proprietorship were extracted from a friendly textbook, perhaps within the past half hour? Or, in the case of special courses, from treatises written by others? For, obviously, the really discreet "professor" carefully omits such tell-tale evidence from the bibliography with which he supplies his classes.

Students are also usually as lazy as they dare to be, and those who have no personal feeling of responsibility for their education would rather listen to lectures, take notes, and cram upon these at intervals for quizzes than to be in daily jeopardy of exposing ignorance through recitation and discussion; and even industrious students, more influenced by what

they like than by what is good for them, prefer the lecture, for it is more interesting to listen to the teacher talk on a subject that is new to them than to a fellow student drone out, perhaps haltingly, matter that is familiar.

Most students, furthermore, are also prone to think that they are being educated in proportion as they are interested or amused. Consequently, if the lecturer is really gifted as a speaker-though he may be utterly deficient as a teacher-his triumph will be great indeed. The young men will vote him "some prof," and the young women will declare themselves just crazy" about him; both will recommend his classes to their friends, and his professional success will be virtually assured. For the administrative powers who control the lecturer's fate, in the absence of first-hand information, will, nine times out of ten, mistake capacity as an entertainer for educational ability on the part of the "teacher," and appreciation for a good, comfortable time in the class-room for enthusiasm for learning on the part of the students, and will hail Professor de Bogus as a new star in the pedagogical heavens. Whereas, de Bogus is merely a tramp comet.

Because of its greater popularity among the students, many teachers who do not consider the lecture pedagogically sound, nevertheless, to some extent employ it—'in self-defense. They dare not teach as well as they can lest they suffer by comparison with the poorer teacher, who, through the lecture, secures

larger classes and louder praise. Such a comparison is likely to prove especially fatal between teachers having sections of the same class.

Scores of people on college and university faculties have, very early in their careers, become aware that they were teaching dangerously well, and have been forced to compromise with their educational ideals in order even to retain their positions; hundreds have seen in the surrender of professional standards their only hope of promotion and "success."

Among those who earnestly desire to educate the students placed by trusting-but often ignorantparents under their care there is a growing dissatisfaction and increasing resentment at the weaknesses in the system that make the present demoralization possible. They are asking why a knowledge of the principles of education is not required of all persons concerned with teaching in colleges and universities; and why, in this age of expert supervision in practically all other lines of work, administrative officers in the higher institutions of learning should depend upon student gossip for a basis upon which to judge the teachers. And-most needful of all-they are pointing out the really criminal aspect of the whole situation—that, through the neglect which has developed false standards of faculty success, the young people of the land, for whom, and for whom only, colleges and universities and faculties exist, are being robbed of their birthright—the right to be educated.

# Reorganization of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools

BY H. F. TAGGART, UNION HIGH SCHOOL, SANTA MARIA, CALIFORNIA

In the present changing school organization, it may be worth while to define Social Science—as the term is yet relatively unknown, in popular circles, at least. Such a definition, making it in the way of an historical sketch, will serve also to indicate somewhat the organization that is now on the way and which it is our purpose to note in detail.

The first course, definitely, that would have its place in our Social Science curriculum, is history and of that we shall speak a moment. Our first historical presentation was in the epic poetry of Homer and the interesting tales of Herodotus. A narration of the exploits of political tyrants, it was distinctly unscientific, narrow in scope and biased in point of view. Caesar, Tacitus and Sallust followed, their work serving us better as literature for Latin study by the bored High School student. After a period of transition, in which the records of the past were buried under the cities destroyed by the Teutonic hordes, an interest in the events as they occurred finally resulted in a type of Didacticism. These "annals," kept by the monks, were a very unscientific compilation of events, without relationship and through which there runs the element of theologic teaching. Nevertheless, this dominant factor contributed a broadening effect on the interpretation of history in that it added a new element of unification.

With the coming of the Renaissance, with all of its varied and vast influences, history gradually broadened and deepened in the hands of numerous writers, each contributing something unique. The diligent search of Petrarch for the records of the old Grecian and Roman authors, was distinctly a revolt against the traditional didacticism of the monks-it introduced a more or less critical analysis of the documents of the past. Erasmus and others studied the Bible and the Decretals of the Church. Montesquieu and Bodin, in the middle of the 18th century, gave a deciding importance to their new factor, the natural physiographic causes. Voltaire, at the same time, advanced lengths ahead of all past historians, by attempting a history of civilization. With him, history climbed out of the political and theological rut and becomes more the study of life itself. Voltaire and Rousseau made the mistake of accepting man as something static, instead of dynamic.

With all that had been accomplished, there were four factors missing to give the most complete interpretation of civilization: (1) a restriction upon the use of documents; (2) limitation upon one's liberty of expression; (3) absence of the teaching of history and social studies; and finally, the underlying explanation of life itself was yet to be discovered.

The democratic wave, following the American and French revolutions, popularized education to a greater degree than ever before and the fetters of tradition and kingly prerogative were cast aside. Then the last factor was finally contributed by Niebuhr in his "History of Rome" and by Ranke. Guizot, Lamprecht, Green, Buckle and Spencer follow, all accepting this principle of development. Darwin's biological study of organic evolution was expanded by Spencer in his universal evolutionary doctrine. Thus the cause for the development of human institutions was explained and with this, the genetic factor, that Niebuhr had observed but not explained, history reaches its fullest interpretation. Some of these authors, prejudiced as to the influence of particular factors, approached their subjects from particular angles, but they all had come to the agreement that human institutions followed laws of evolution.

This brings us to the point where we can state the definition of history and show its relation to the broader social study. History, if we define it as Bernheim does, "as the science of men in their activities as social beings," or simpler still as the life development of man, is the nucleus of our department, because it portrays society's development in all of its institutional development, social, economic, political, religious, educational and cultural. It comprehends, therefore, to a certain extent our other courses. But with the growing importance of sociological questions today, we must look deeper to understand the evolution or retrogression of a people. Hence we have our course in sociology. Again, with the growth in population, questions as to the individual's relationships to government naturally multiply. Problems of better government all become pertinent to the citizen and to qualify for an intelligent exercise of his privilege of citizenship, civic study is more and more demanded. Man has passed through many economic stages in his struggle for existence. The unit of business has passed beyond the home and without an understanding of the laws underlying business activities and without an appreciation of the evils that can grow out of a purely competitive system, one is inefficient as a citizen and apt to fall into the snare set for him by misguided leaders, who will dazzle him with their panaceas for all economic maladjustments. Consequently the great ideal of the engendering of a social point of view should place economic study in some form or other as far down as the junior high school curriculum.

As our secondary curriculum has broadened, as a result of the socialized ideals of education, so our history department has broadened and today the social science department can accomplish more perhaps, than any other department in realizing this social ideal. An individual today is only a part of a great social group—the ancient unit of society, the family, has been replaced in many of its func-

tions by larger social units, as education by the State, business by the corporation and the factory; and courses that teach the evolution of society through its changing forms, are the most practical to society as a whole.

In stating the aims of social study today, it is interesting to contrast that broad ideal with the aims in its study since its inclusion in the curriculum. According to Inglis, "History was studied primarily as an ancillary to the classics. That stage was followed by a second period, when history was studied largely as an informational subject. Later still, history was studied with emphasis on its supposed disciplinary values, and finally history is now studied with particular emphasis on its sociological values with special reference to the activities of present-day life as participated in by the ordinary man or woman." (p. 545.) This statement of the modern aim squares very well with that laid down by the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A. (1916):

"The Social Studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content, rather than in social aim, for the keynote of modern education is social efficiency and instruction in all subjects should contribute toward that end. Yet from the nature of their content, the social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society. . . . They should accomplish this end through the development of the appreciation of the nature and the laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups and the intelligence and will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being."

This evolution of the aims of Social Science teaching is reflected in the story of the content as it has been presented. By 1850 geography had been relegated to the elementary school, history was studied primarily to meet college entrance requirements, while political science had appeared in some curricula. In 1893 the Committee of Ten and a subcommittee made certain recommendations, that history be given to all freshmen and that political economy be dropped from the course as a distinct subject and that elements of civil government be added to the American history. This report, finding no response, led to the report by the Committee of Seven, which recommended a course of ancient history for the first year, medieval and modern history for the second year, English history for the third year, and American history for the fourth; a course of social study that was generally accepted. The Committee of Five (1911) suggested some changes as to order, the placing of more emphasis on civil government, but no far-reaching change was made. The Bureau of Education (1914), published a report of an investigation that showed the influence of the Committee of Seven. One fact is noteworthy-that economics in 1914 was finding a place in the curriculum.

Before noting the course as outlined by the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A., we will note some of the factors that have caused such a whole-

sale change in the content of our course. Then we shall take as a concrete example, an attempt to meet the ideals of the present day, in the course of social science as outlined for the junior and senior high schools of Richmond, Ind.

In the first decade of the present century many persons began to consider the degree of efficiency of our schools. Among the facts that came out prominently, was the study of elimination. Thorndike (1906), Akers (1908) and Strayer (1911) awakened the public to the fact that our higher schools were off the track; that only one-third of the students who enter the schools reached the first year of the high school, while only one-tenth completed the course. The result was a more general movement toward compulsory education and the throwing of the light of criticism on the curriculum to meet the requirements and the interests of those whose interests in the past had been subverted by an adherence to college domination. States generally accepted the doctrine of compulsory education to the age of fourteen, some even to sixteen years. Two great factors appeared unexpectedly that did more than all else to mold the public opinion: (1) With the World War of 1914 and its great boom to American industry, the laboring classes throughout the nation rose to a position of dominance, and demanded more efficient training for their children. This economic factor was immediately felt in the vocational trend in our schools; the establishment of trade schools and industrial courses in our cosmopolitan schools. The second factor was more sociological. The public was startled, at our entrance into war, at the degree of illiteracy and physical disability. The natural effect was to broaden the ideals of our education. These great social and economic demands added to the psychological and educational factors already at work, have combined to urge us to a greater degree of concern.

To meet, then, this new responsibility, it is the duty of the junior and senior high schools to fit their curricula to the requirements of all types of students who must now attend school. As a part of the actual reorganization of these curricula the social studies must be outlined to meet the ideal of high school training; and second, the particular needs of the individual student.

As stated very definitely by the Committee on Social Studies, the course recommended is expected to realize the high school ideal. "More specifically, the social studies of the American high school should have for their conscious and constant purpose, the cultivation of good citizenship. . . . High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should be a specific aim of the social studies." Their course, organized more directly upon the 6-3-3 plan is outlined as follows: Grades VII-IX. Geography, European History, American History and Civics. For the X-XII grades, European and American History and American Problems of Democracy,—social, economic, and political—in the order named. The geography is to be closely correlated with his-

tory and civics "and should be thoroughly socialized."

Civics should be of the community civics type. I am not going to stop to discuss the plans of organization, for lack of space, but I did wish to note the general outline that the similarity of the two outlines might be observed.

In organizing our courses and writing a course of study for the junior and senior high schools of Richmond, Ind., we had two distinct principles in mind, first, the completed course must square with the ideal of modern education for the secondary school. and second, it must be elastic enough to meet the needs of students in our more or less cosmopolitan type of schools. We felt (much as did Snedden) "there are many good reasons for believing that the study of history as now organized is greatly, if not hopelessly, overloaded with materials, that, in view of proper functioning standards for secondary education are of no substantial worth." At the same time, we felt that the department should grasp the significance of Prof. Dewey's remarks, "that the war ought to give a final blow to the myth that is still current in Marxian circles that a new era will be ushered in by the breakdown of Capitalism, due to its completed evolution, a breakdown in which it only remains for the proletariat to step in and take complete possession,"-and in teaching for citizenship, teach Americanism at the same time.

With the time available I can only suggest the general ideas in our course,—noting the aim in each particular unit of instruction. The relation of each unit to the main objectives, outline of the scope of the course, devices, and methods are all omitted. We pride ourselves on the completion of a course of study (the work of the entire department over a period of two years), which should compare favorably with the

best in the country.

Our general aim in the instruction of the junior high school is stated thus, "the social studies provided for the junior high schools have as their aim the development of the qualities of citizenship and ethical standards. The following outline of the courses plans to realize this aim through the study of facts and conditions in the world of today and their development from conditions of the past. It is believed that the appreciation of world relationships can best be approached through the appeal to the student's interest in American problems."

7B. European Backgrounds. 5 Hours.

"As aims in this course, the student seeks to find those changes in European Medieval life, out of which the modern nations emerged; (2) an understanding of the explorations of the new lands as a phase in these changes; (3) an acquaintanceship with the development of religious and political freedom in England as the foundations for our national ideals, and an understanding of the geographical conditions of the new continent that influenced European activities and colonial expansion."

With no text and using the project method, this course leads us directly into our,

7A-8B. American History. 10 Hours.

"This course aims to contribute to the student's

understanding and appreciation of the world in which he lives, to acquaint the pupil with the life, growth and the ideals of the United States and to instil in him a deep regard for the spirit of the fore-fathers."

Recognizing the predominance of the business factor in all social relations today, we are correlating geography and economics into a course as follows:

8A. Industrial Geography. 5 Hours.

"The aim in this course is to teach the pupil, first the relation of the United States to world commerce, through the study of her natural resources, and their exploitation; and second, the need and means of conservation of our natural resources."

9B. Civies. 5 Hours.

"The aim in this course is to aid the pupil in the acquisition of a higher sense of citizenship, to teach him to know the community, the meaning of group life—what it does for him and what he must do to maintain social community life." This is distinctly a community civies course, discussing problems of health, protection, recreation, business and government, etc.

9A. Vocational Information. 5 Hours.

"The aims are: (1) to provide the pupil with information about the world's work, its opportunities, and requirements for success, in particular fields of life work; (2) to aid him in the judging of occupations; (3) to help in the planning of his future occupational life; and (4) directly to aid him in the choosing of a senior high school curriculum, in preparation for that vocation." This course is in the experimental stage, but if it only approaches the ideals set for it, it will certainly have justified itself.

The courses for the senior high school are more varied and generally elective. The general thought in the reorganization of the course is stated thus: "In acordance with the general plan of the program for the secondary school, the courses for the senior schools are more narrowly specialized, offering the opportunity for more intensive study in the several units of history and social science."

10B and 10A. General History. 10 Hours.

"Since History is an evolutionary story of life development, and the roots of the present lie so deep in the past, this course aims to help the student see some of those evolutionary changes that have led up to present institutions." This course replaces the traditional Ancient, Medieval and Modern History courses, though our course of study definitely states that, in event of a sufficient demand for these courses to meet college entrance requirements, we will offer them.

11B. English History. 5 Hours.

"This course aims, primarily, to lead the pupil to an understanding and appreciation of that social and political civilization, which is the foundation of our institutions." Many factors seemed to warrant the retention of this course as a part of the regular course of study, particularly the fact that it is time American and English history studies be correlated in such a manner that truth may not be smothered in our over-zealous patriotism.

11B or 11A. U. S. History. 5 Hours.

"The department aims to give to the pupil an understanding and appreciation of the development of the United States as a nation and as a people; our national ideals and institutions and the causes that contribute to present-day political, social, and economic problems." The course so placed makes an admirable lead to our 12th grade courses, which follow the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies.

11A or 12B or 12A. Civies. 5 Hours.

"The one great aim in Civics is to instil into the student a quality of citizenship that will make of him an asset. The course aims to create this social point of view and sense of individual responsibility through these minor aims in instruction; an idea of his place as member of society; his rights and duties; an understanding of what is meant by such terms as citizen and voter; an understanding of what is meant by clean politics; and an understanding of the machinery and operation of government, city, township, county, state and nation."

12B. Economics. 5 Hours.

"The course aims to acquaint more mature students with the fundamental principles of our economic organization and to train them to judge better concerning economic conditions which he is meeting and constantly will meet in daily life."

12B or 12A. Social Problems. 5 Hours.

"This course aims to help the more mature students to become aware of some of the more important existing social problems about him; to lead the student to recognize the complete interdependence of individuals in our social organization and to develop in the student a social-minded attitude toward present-day social conditions which he is meeting."

In addition to these courses in the outline, we are giving next year a course in Vocational Civics for the boys working under the Smith-Hughes law and are considering the possibility of organizing courses in South American history and Far Eastern history. Tacitly it was agreed within the department that upon sufficient demand, we could offer a year's course in American history for those entering schools that still dictate that requirement.

Though we have lost a great deal in cutting into our outline of course of study in this manner, I hope enough has been presented to show this—that it has been our ambition to organize a course in social studies that will square with the ideals for secondary education and at the same time be elastic enough to fit the needs of individual students. The courses can easily be adapted to meet the requirements of three distinct types of pupils; the one concentrating on a trade as far as possible, the so-called vocational student; (2) the student who wishes the conventional academic work (modernized as to methods and devices, etc.) in preparation for collegiate or professional work; (3) and all students of degrees between the two extremes.

### A System of Progressive Self-marking for High School History Classes Using the Topical Outline Recitation

BY A. CURTIS WILGUS, M. A., FELLOW IN HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

I. For the benefit of those who are not familiar with the Topical Outline Recitation a few brief words of explanation may be necessary. The Topical Outline Recitation consists of: (1) the Topical Outline; (2) the written questions; and (3) the written answers.

(1) The Topical Outline consists of an outline of a definite historical period or part of a period assigned by the teacher. The text that the outline follows may perhaps be found in one textbook or in a number of textbooks (including source material, etc.) to which the pupils all have access. The greater the variety of sources for the "pith," or better the "flesh and blood," to go onto the bony outline frame, the more "spice" to the lesson, with an increased interest on the part of the pupil. The outlines should be fairly simple but still complicated and suggestive enough to immediately give rise to a thought response on the part of the student. In a word, the outline should be made a stimulus to the Historical-suggestive powers.

Of course, the outlines must not be so complete that it will be unnecessary for the pupil to read the texts or assignments, for all the gain would be loss, and the purpose of the outline defeated. It must be a sort of hall-tree, figuratively speaking, upon which the pupils can hang their cloaks or wraps of facts gleaned from the assignment.

After the time allowed for the preparation of the lesson, i. e., the reading of assigned material, has elapsed, a report should be made upon the outline by several pupils before the class. In order to present the report the pupil must know the material himself; he should not be allowed to read it, but should speak from his notes. At the discretion of the teacher, one pupil may report on the whole outline, or the outline may be divided up among two, three or more, so that pupils may report on parts of the outline. If this is done, more pupils are allowed a chance to recite, which in turn necessitates the preparation of the whole lesson on the part of all the pupils all of the time, and not all part of the time, nor part all of the time. In calling for reports among the pupils no definite order should be followed as the pupils soon find out and know when their turn will come to report and thus are prepared only on those occasions.

(2) The written questions should cover the main essential points covered by the lesson which they accompany. They should be of sufficient number in order not to stint or omit an important point. Of course, they should not be too long drawn-out nor complicated, but short and to the point. They should, however, demand explanations and reasons for answers, with proof. Direct questions should be

avoided unless a reason for the answer is demanded in the question. The so-called "queer questions" should be omitted except in rare cases where a point of peculiar interest is to be made. But the facts demanded should not be simply dry facts, for history is not a subject of dry facts; it is a study that is to be made alive with real people and events. Thus in the questions the lives of historically important men might be looked into as well as some "spicy bits," such as anecdotes, etc., told of and about people and things. The questions, then, should not bring out the dry facts only, but should, on the other hand, not over-emphasize the less important facts. Teachers should always remember that they are judged a great deal by the kind of questions they ask.

(3) The written answers to the questions should be done wholly on the part of the pupils when the answers are required. The teacher should not answer any questions until the pupil has exhausted his stock of knowledge both in the text and in the accessible reference library. The questions are given to the pupil as a problem for him to work out and answer. Of course, it is hard to prevent pupils copying the answers from others. However, this may be accomplished by asking individual questions of pupils or by looking over all answers written by the pupils when they are handed in. This is quite a task for the teacher, but since the questions are not asked often (only at the end of each outline) the teacher will not find this a difficult task if done at the end of each Topical Report. It is better to look over the answers to questions after they have been reported upon in class and then the teacher may find it feasible to look over only the ones not reported on by the different pupils.

II. With these few words of explanation we may now turn to the discussion of a method of self-marking, using the above plan of recitation as a basis. The carrying out of the recitation plan may be greatly simplified and at the same time rendered more efficient from the standpoint of the teacher as well as from the standpoint of the pupil. Briefly, it is a system of self-determination and marking of grades on the part of the pupil, who knows at all times his status quo in the subject with the raising of his own grade at his own discretion limited only by his native ability and powers of acquiring knowledge of the subject. The whole system, which is thus based upon a self-interest standard, may be outlined as follows:

#### REQUIRED WORK-75 points

2.	NOTE-BOOK (CATALOG)(total)
	Outlines (assigned) 5
	(A) Classified topics (assigned) 10
	Questions and answers (assigned) 5
	Note-Book (Loose Leaf)(total) 20
	Outlines (essigned)
	Outlines (assigned)
	(B) Classified topics (assigned) 10
	Questions and answers (assigned) 5
	(Note: Choice to be made of either A or B.)
3.	HISTORY READING (total) 10
	Text (assigned) 5
	References (assigned) 5
	(Note: References to include source ma-
	terial and collateral reading.)
4.	Examination (if any)
	(Note: The examination should not be given
	unless absolutely required. For ex-
	planation see following pages.)
	planation see following pages.)
	NON-REQUIRED WORK-25 points
	POINTS
1	Topics (total) 8
1.	One long tonic
	One long topic
	Two shorter topics (each) 2
	(Note: All topics are posted and listed in
	two groups designated as Long Topics
	and Short Topics. The choice by pupils
	to be solded by the teachers

to be guided by the teacher.)

In order to understand clearly the foregoing, the following explanation is given. The total amount of work that the pupils may do is divided into two groups, namely, required work and non-required work.

(A) Required Work. The required work represents the minimum necessary for the pupil to accomplish in order to pass and is represented numerically by 75 points, which is generally the standing in percent in most schools required as the passing mark. The required work is then divided into three groups, each group bearing a certain number of points. When the total of these points in the three groups is taken together the result is 75 points, or the amount of required work. It is seen then that all of the work given under "required work" is assigned work and consequently required; therefore the pupil must complete this to pass; and this latter must be emphasized upon his or her mind. Noting now the divisions of required work we find:

(1) The Recitation. This is represented by 45 points out of the 75 points of required work. This group is perhaps the most difficult of the three groups for the teacher to handle. The pupils should be kept on the qui vive as much of the time as possible for they are marked on the ratio between failures and

successes in the reporting on outlines and topics, and in the answering of questions. Of this the teacher must keep an account, even though the pupils will doubtless do the same, as it is very necessary for the teacher to maintain a record of all reports. In order to obtain a passing mark in the recitation (45 points), a pupil must maintain an average at a minimum ratio of failures to successes of 1 to 5 respectively, i. e., out of 6 recitations 5 at least must be reasonably correct which is, of course, judged by the teacher, who, in turn gives credit by the usual sign so that the pupils may know whether their recitation is acceptable or not.

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(2) The Note-Book. This group is represented by 20 points out of the 75 points. The note-books may be of two kinds, namely: the loose-leaf or the

card-catalogue note-book.

(a) The card-catalogue note-book is perhaps the most efficient and more easily workable of the two. The pupil will find after a little practice that with the catalogue type of note-book all notes are at his finger tips and can be found in an instant. With small cards or pieces of paper the shape of cards, which may be obtained cheaply at most printing offices, the pupil can make note of many and various items of interest, and arrange them alphabetically, which, with another system of note-book keeping, might be recorded but not so easily nor so quickly found. Thus it is also a time-saving device. boxes for the cards may be gotten at a shoe store. They should be made of cardboard and of the narrow variety. In each class-room a set of shelves can easily be made, usually by the manual training department, whereon the boxes can be placed so that the pupils need not take them home, and so that the teacher may look over them at will. To study or review a certain lesson or topic the cards under that subject may be taken out and carried home by the pupils. In the note-book should be found the outline as assigned together with the subject-matter necessary to make the outline complete, the latter having been gleaned from the references. Out of the 20 points assigned to the note-book the outline receives 5 points. Also the questions together with their answers (all found in the note-book) receive 5 points, while assigned topics, likewise found written in the note-book, receive 10 points out of the total of 20.

(b) In the loose-leaf note-book the credits are allotted as in the above card catalogue, making also a total of 20 points. These two systems are optional, but the card catalogue is to be preferred and is here recommended.

(3) History Reference Reading. A total here is represented by 10 points out of the 75 and are divided as follows: (1) The Text which is assigned and which is necessary to the understanding of the subject is given 5 points; (2) The Assigned References, exclusive of the text, consisting of source material and collateral reading is allotted 5 points, thus making a total of 10 points for reading out of the 75. As has just been said, this reading is thought necessary only to a good understanding of the sub-

ject and therefore should not be overdone. All extra reading may be added to the non-required work

which will be explained later.

(4) The Examination. There is a tendency now to do away more and more with the examination. Therefore, if no examination is required, no consideration need be given to it. But on the other hand, if an examination is required, it must be taken into consideration with the required work. This may be done as follows: A mark of 80 on the examination paper of any pupil is required to confirm the average standing or number of points made by that pupil before the examination was taken. For example, if the pupil has a mark of 92 points before he takes his examination, he must have a grade of 80 at least on the examination to conform his final average of 92. Therefore, if he should get higher than 80, but 92 or less on the examination, his grade will remain the same. But, should he get above 92 on his examination his grade of 92 and his examination grade will be averaged together in the usual way by adding twice the sum of his class mark to his examination mark and dividing by three. Should he, however, receive a mark on his examination below 80 then his final standing (i. e., average), or number of points, may be reduced as follows:

Examinat Mark	i	01	n																		f	r	1	n		a'	v e	er	a e i	g	e	subtract number before t
79 }		×	*		4	*					*	*			*					 									*	,		1
$\{77,76\}$	1			,				,			*			×	*				8													2
75 }		0		9	0				a	0	e	0	0	0	0	0	0		•	 0 1						,	,			0		3
73 }	*				e	×	×	,		*	×			,	*					 		. ,		. *				*		6		4
71 }		*			*			,	*	*	×	×	×	*											*	*		×	×			5
69 }			*						×		*		,	*			,															6
67	×	*			*	×		×				*			*											ė	*	*			*	7
65									*											 												8

For all examination marks below 65 failure should be recorded except when the original mark or number of points before taking the examination was 90 or above. Exceptions may be taken in this case if the teacher believes that the individual pupil warrants the exception. The standing of 80 here is taken as the minimum to confirm marks because it will be found that there will be very few pupils with this system but have at least a grade of 80 points before the examination. If, however, a pupil should have a grade between 75 and 80 before he takes the examination and his examination mark is between 75 and 80, then his average can be found by adding twice his grade before examination with his examination mark and dividing by three. If the pupil's grade before the examination is between 75 and 80 and his examination mark is found to be below 75, then his average can be found by the same method as above, namely by adding twice the grade mark to his examination mark and dividing by three.

(B) Non-required Work. This represents the num-

ber of points that the pupil may earn through his own initiative and consists of 25 points divided into

three separate groups.

(1) History Topics. The subjects for these topics are grouped into two heads, namely: Long Topics and Short Topics, all of which are listed so that the pupils may choose from the two lists. The total amount of points to be obtained in the topic group is 8. The pupil may choose the subject for one long topic giving him four credits, and the subjects of two short topics giving his two credits each. He is not to take two long topics without special permission from the teacher. Thus, in order to get 8 credits he must choose the subjects of one long topic and 2 short topics. The choice of all topics should be guided by the teacher, who marks them when finished, using a passing mark of 80 as a minimum.

(2) History Maps, Charts, etc. The total number of points to be obtained here is 3. The subjects for the maps, charts, graphs, etc., are listed by the teacher, and the pupil may choose, if he wishes to get the full number of points, any 6 of the subjects, thus getting one credit for each two subjects chosen. An even number of subjects must be completed in order to get credit as no half points are given. The teacher here must be the constant adviser of the pupils in the choice of the subjects and can, if necessary, change the ratio of maps, etc., to credits if she thinks one subject is of sufficient importance to receive one full credit instead of one-half credit.

(3) Outside History Reading. This represents 14 points out of the 25. The outside reading may be divided into Historical Poetry, True Historical Novels, Historical Fiction, Biographies and Autobiographies, and newspaper and magazine articles as follows:

(a) Historical Poetry. As this is generally not

(a) Baker: "Guide to Historical Fiction," pub. by Rout-

ledge Co., 1914, London; Baker, E. A.: "History in Fiction," E. P. Dutton & Co., 1907, N. Y.;

(c) Bangs, Joseph Edward: "A Comprehensive Reference Manual to U. S. History," pp. 85-106 possim, for lists of Historical prose and poems. Pub. by the Howard-Severance Co., 1907, Chicago;

(d) Buck, Gertrude (compiler): "American History in

Fiction," for upper grades and high schools; Historical Outlook, vol. x, No. 7, Oct. 1919, pp. 384-7.

(e) Nield, Jonathan: "Guide to Best Historical Novels and

Tales," pub. by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, and E. Mathews, 1904, London;

(f) Stanard, Evert Earle: "The use of Historical Poetry" Historical Outlook, vol. ix, No. 9, Dec. 1918, pp. 487-90.

(g) Wallington, N. U.: (Editor) "American History by American Poets," Duffield & Co., N. Y., 1911.
(h) Literary Digest, Feb. 7, 1920; vol. 64, No. 6; see for a list of Historical Novels, p. 33.
(i) See also the National Cyclopedia of American Biography, pp. 186, 198, for Americans in Fiction Poetry.

raphy, pp. 186-198, for Americans in Fiction, Poetry and the Drama.

Other lists of Historical prose and poetry may often be found in the older American historical textbooks. The use of the above list depends, of course, upon the size of the library, but many books here suggested are usually found in schools of the larger size.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The following is a very bried list of references to Historical prose and poetry which teachers may find helpful in making up their lists:

very great in length, only one credit is given for this work, which may be gained on the completion of the reading of 15 poems. The list of poetry should be posted and the teacher should be the guide in its selection.

(b) True Historical Novels. To these are assigned 4 points, two for each novel read. Again, as in the above, as well as in the following, the teacher must be the guide in selections made by the pupils and should post all lists for the students' use.

(c) Historical Fiction. This receives two points in the credit scale and is given on the completion of the

reading of one novel.

(d) Biographies and Autobiographies. Of these two may be read, each receiving 2 points, making 4

as a total obtainable in this group.

(e) Newspaper and Magazine Articles. It is expected that the latter will be found more helpful than the former and the more and better articles will be found in the magazines than in the newspapers. It is very desirable that the pupils should get the good newspaper and good magazine reading habit. Consequently these are here suggested and assigned. Each article read receives 1 point with a maximum of 3 points obtainable.

In all of the above groups the outside work must be checked by the teacher, the topics being read in class and the outside reading being reported upon by

the pupils before the class.

#### CRITICISMS OF THE SYSTEM

There are of course various criticisms of this plan. One of the most important of these is that the whole plan is too mechanical and the pupils work merely for standings and not for the mastery of the subject. Let us say to this that the plan will be just as mechanical as the teacher makes it-no more, no less. It lies wholly within the power of the teacher to make the plan a success or a failure. If the plan is forgotten in the teaching, but remembered in the marking of the subject, it will succeed. The teacher must be "diplomatic" in its use, to use a trite expression. It must not be overworked and the standings must not be emphasized any more than standings are in the common system of teaching and marking. The plan is mainly to be used so that the pupils can at all times see just where they stand in reference to each other and can raise their standings at will. Thus the teacher is not bothered continually by the pupils asking for their grades.

Another criticism is found with the system of marking or grading pupils. It is too rigid and not flexible enough for every individual. If there are individual cases that come up where a change is necessary to "fit" the scholar, the teacher may provide as she sees best or even dispense with the system in that individual case. This, of course, necessitates extra work on the teacher because of maintaining two systems or standards of marking.

At first sight it would seem that the teacher's work is increased with the use of this system, but in reality it is not. In the required work, if the teacher checks up just as she would in any other method to see that the work is done, she only has to give the allotted amount of credit. Some pupils may not do all of the required work, but instead some of the non-required work. This must not be allowed, for the required work must be finished first. It should be continually emphasized that the required work is required work and if it is not done first of all the pupil will not get credit for any non-required work and will consequently fail. This may seem too arbitrary, but in all methods of marking the pupil must do certain things in order to pass. If looked at in this way, the system is not so exacting upon the pupil to the extent that his "natural bent" or inclination will be destroyed or smothered. It is hard to be exact with pupils who do not like the subject of history and this is recognized by the teacher who still remains the judge and can decide in certain individual cases.

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Another argument might be raised against the system in that the points are poorly allotted. This perhaps is a justifiable criticism, but in such a system, based upon a scale of points as this is, one will always find others who disagree in some respects or minor details. However, it has seemed necessary to take as the minimum for the required work, the number of points (75) which is required in most schools for passing. In dividing these points among the three groups of required work, it was thought feasible to give the greatest number of points to the most important group which is, as considered by most educators, the recitation proper. Here no points are given except for the reports on outlines, and topics and answers to questions. Questions asked by the pupils and all class discussions are not taken into consideration and are consequently given no recognition by points. This, it is clear, would be practically impossible because of the infinite amount of work thus required on the part of the teacher and because of the confusion that would result in the recitation. It must not be thought, however, that class discussion is to be discouraged because there is no credit given for it in the scale, for there will be as much discussing in the class-room in this system as in any other and the pupils will usually be found to take part more readily. Next to the recitation in importance is the note-book. The history reading receives the least number of points. This, of course, is the ultimate and fundamental source of the material for both recitation and note-book and consequently it is hardly the least important if classed with the other groups. But in reality this is a group by itself. In recognizing better recitations and better note-books by giving them a higher number of points, better and more careful reading will result; and since it is absolutely necessary to the first two groups, they are credited with more points, therefore, to encourage the careful reading which might, if it (the read-

But this system will be found, to the original and ingenious teacher, a workable solution in these individual cases if it is properly used.

At first sight it would seem that the teacher's work

The use of the historical drama has not here been suggested as that would broaden the now required field of work and perhaps detract from the main aim of the outside reading.

ing) had the greatest number of points, become an end in itself regardless of the note-book and recitation. This would not be desirable because the notebook and recitation act as agents to fix the subject read in the pupils' minds.

Another criticism is that in regard to the marking of pupils after taking the examination. As has been said, the examination should be done away with, if not absolutely required, as this system of marking is a semi-self-examination in itself, in that it keeps before the teacher and pupil constantly the footing upon which each pupil stands. But if the examinations are required, as they still are in many schools, then it is necessary to establish a means whereby the whole system will not be disarranged by the addition or subtraction of one of its parts. This, then, is the aim of the marking scale herewith given in connection with the determining of final marks when the examination is required. It will be noticed that the same reduction is made for the examination mark of 79 as for 78, and for 77 as for 76, etc. It was thought wiser to have it thus than to have the reductions in half-points in order to avoid confusion in the final marking.

With this system it is possible, of course, for the pupils to get a final mark of 100 even though their examination is only 80 or between 80 and 100. If the examination is done away with, then this discrepancy will not occur. But on the other handmany teachers do not believe in giving the mark of 100 to pupils as a final standing-let us point out that it will be rather hard for many of the pupils to get this high mark. The ones who do get it would be, as a general rule, the best pupils in the class.

Finally, the great criticism against the system is that it tends to make the pupils work for standings instead of for the mastery of the subject. We think that we would not be wrong to say that in all ages the average pupil has worked for standings rather than for knowledge. Even in the colleges and in the universities the same holds true. It is, of course, desirable to get away from this defect if such it can be called. Standings should be made to register, as the thermometer does the temperature, the degree of mastery of a subject on the part of pupils. The degrees of proficiency of each pupil can, by the use of marks, be easily compared, and adjustments on the part of the pupils to correct them can be made accordingly. Thus standings of one sort or another, whether they be figures, letters, or symbols, are essentially necessary in every subject. Therefore, since they are necessary-not a "necessary evil" unless something better is found as a substitute-it must be the teacher's task to see that the pupil understands if possible the correct use of the system of grading used in the subject taught. She must explain, as all teachers have done, that the pupil must strive for the mastery of the subject-a sort of game in which a good grade is the reward of faithful work carefully and well done; and not until then will the pupil see and realize the true goal of his or her endeavors. Only upon this basis can such a system of self-marking be justified.

## An Illustration of the Problem Method

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In the following discussion I have attempted to present a history lesson which has been developed by the problem method. The major part of the plan outlined has evolved out of the writer's experience in teaching; yet many of the suggestions have been taken from Professor Tryon's discussion of the problem method.1

Modern history is taught in Rockford Senior High School as a junior subject. The text-book used is Robinson and Beard, Outlines of European History, Part II, Ginn and Company, 1918. The second semester of this course attempts to cover the history of European nations since the Congress of Vienna

through the Treaty of Versailles.

It is the opinion of the writer that the following problem could be worked out in conjunction with the study of chapter twenty-five of the above text on "The Expansion of Europe and the Spread of Western Civilization." It is not supposed that the problem indicated here should do away with the topical or text-book method in covering this chapter. By using the problem method only, the pupil might be tempted to skim through this chapter looking only for material that bears on this problem, and in turn would fail to grasp equally important material which may not directly bear on this subject. After a discussion of this chapter by the class, I would put them to work on the following problem which would send them back through the material we have covered in a different way. Each pupil in order to solve this problem must search for and fix his attention on the more important points, which would mean that the pupil will have a greater opportunity for retaining the essentials of the course. There is many a history teacher who is met by this statement from pupils, "I simply cannot get history as I am not good at memory work; I can't remember facts and dates," or "I feel as if I know today's lessons, but if you question me on the material three or four days afterwards, I cannot remember what we have covered." Now, it is to meet this situation that I would employ the problem method. A well-chosen problem will show that the teacher is not interested in detail; the attention of the pupil will be turned towards the high points of the course, information will be unified and correlated under the important subject with which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Tryon, R. M., The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools, pp. 82-93.

the problem deals. This method is a device that enables the teacher to "drive home" and rivet the

outstanding essentials of the course.

The writer carries out the following procedure for the solution of a problem. The assignment of the problem should be given with careful attention to defining or explaining any unclear term of the problem. As preparation for the following day, each student should be asked to go through the text or general reference books and bring in material bearing on the problem. For recitation, the class is divided into teams. This is done by asking the class to "count-off in fours" in true army style. This "counting-off" takes only a minute, and you are almost sure of having both weak and strong students on each team. The teams are now sent to the blackboard. The members of the team make use of the individual material which each has brought to class, then collectively the team goes about solving the problem as seen in the following example. Experience has shown that each member of the team will come prepared with his individual material as he will want to contribute his part to the team work, and he knows that other members of the team would not relish his being a "sponger." I have also found that members of the team working collectively get a great deal from each other. Perhaps, one member of the team will not remember the "Agadir incident" or the location of the spheres of influence in China, -then it is the duty of other members to clear away this difficulty. The teams do their work in a low conversational tone; and it is the duty of the teacher to pass from team to team giving helpful suggestions when needed.

After each team has completed the solution of the problem, the class as a whole makes out a final classification of material as is shown in the example below. This outline is generally placed on the front board. In this final work the best material is contributed from each team. Then the teacher should check this material against her own solution of the problem, which she has prepared before the class exercise, and thus make sure that all essentials are included in the final classification.

The writer feels that it is worth while for the pupils to place sub-topics under each of the main points in the classification as shown in the example. This will prevent the pupils dealing in general statements without the historical information to present as proof for their points. By including the sub-topics your problem will be of greater value when the pupil makes use of his notebook for review. Further, the sub-topics enable the pupil to tie-up and unify his historical information under points of large importance which will be worth while to remember.

To aid the class in drawing the conclusion from the problem, the main points of the solution should be evaluated. This may be done by having the class place "I" before those points of primary importance, and "I" for points of secondary importance. This evaluation will necessitate worth-while discussion on the part of the class, and judgments passed will be based on historical information which the pupil has at hand. The final classification is copied and placed in the notebook.

EXAMPLE OF THE PROBLEM METHOD

Assignment of problem: That the advantages of the policy of imperialism among nations during the 19th and 20th centuries outweigh the disadvantages of this policy for the world.

Definition of imperialism: A land-grabbing policy of nations in gaining commercial concessions in distant territories either by establishing a protect-

orate or annexation.

#### IMPERIALISM

ADVANTAGES

 Backward and undeveloped nations were led to break away from their policy of isolation.

Proof is seen in:

- Commodore Perry's visit to Japan, 1853.
- b. Boxer Uprising, 1900.

11. Educational opportunities established in:

- a. China, who does away with her old classical system of Confucius, and turns to the study of economics, history, sciences. Boxer Idemnity Fund established.
- India has elementary schools established on petition of twenty inhabitants of each community.

c. By United States in the Philippines. Christianity has been spread through activities

of the missionaries.

 Our geographical knowledge of the world has been increased by:

a. Livingston and Stanley's explorations of Africa, 1873-1878.

- 11. Imperialistic policy has made necessary better means of communication:
  - a. Trans-oceanic cables.
  - b. Marconi's wireless.
  - c. Building of Suez and Panama Canals.
  - d. Trans-Siberian Railroad.
  - e. Hamburg-Bagdad Railroad.
- Makes possible the investing of surplus capital in foreign lands.
- Raw products are made available for manufacturing concerns in the home country.
  - This is true particularly of England and France.
- 11. Imperialism shows the need of protecting the political integrity of small nations:
  - a. Recognized in League of Nations, Article X.

#### IMPERIALISM

DISADVANTAGES

- 1'. Imperialistic desires have been a vital cause for the waging of war. This was true in:
  - a. French seizure of Tunis and Madagascar.
  - b. Chino-Jap War.
  - c. Boer War.
  - d. Russo-Jap War.
  - e. Italy's scizure of Tripoli.

- f. Agadir incident, 1913.
- g. World War.
  - (1) Germany's desire for a "place in the sun."
- 11. Spirit of nationalism has been violated in:
  - a. English oppression of the Boers.
  - b. Demand for home rule not fully recognized in India and Egypt.
  - c. Spheres of influence created in
    - (1) Manchuria, Port Arthur, Kiauchau, Wei-hai-wei, Shantung.
- 12. Natives have often been cruelly treated by foreigners. This is seen in:
  - Belgian treatment of the natives in the Congo region.
  - b. Japanese treatment of the Koreans.
- Larger armies and navies have been needed for patroling conquered territory for:
  - England must remain mistress of the sea.
  - Wilhelm II stated that Germany's future lay on the sea.

- Armies of occupation maintained in India, S. African colonies, Egypt, spheres of influence in China.
- d. Naval bases were established in the islands of the Pacific.
- 12. Imperialism has led to the formation of secret treaties, policies and understandings among nations; This is true of:
  - a. Monroe Doctrine.
    b. Anglo-Jap Alliance.

Exercises worked out similarly to the example seem to present the following advantages: (1) You have a one-hundred per cent pupil activity during the class hour, as all the pupils are working all the time on worth-while material; (2) The teacher is able to relegate herself to the background, leaving the pupil to exercise his own initiative and judgment; (3) Through the problem method the student has something definite to work for in his study; (4) In the solution of a well-chosen problem the pupil's attention will be directed to the essential and important points, and he is not apt to be lost in a forest of historical information; (5) Historical information is unified and correlated around the high points of the course.

# Ancient History a "Living" Thing

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In order to really understand and appreciate any historical event the boy or girl must to a greater or lesser degree realize that event. He must detach himself from the environment of today and imagine himself in the surroundings and characteristics of the period in question.

Possibly in the field of Ancient History, this problem is the most difficult, the events of this subject being the furthest remote in time. If the setting and atmosphere of ancient Egypt, Babylon, Greece or Rome are not definitely given, if an imagination and a realization of these ancient civilizations are not created, the boy or girl finds his or her Ancient History "dull" or "dry" or too difficult to understand, concludes he or she is not a "classical" student and leaves the course.

The problem of the teacher is to make of her subject a "living" thing. "Living History" is what the time requires. Too long have our boys and girls been bored to death by the old-fashioned textbook method—if one can ever affix the term "method" to this way of imparting history. Noble efforts are being made to vitalize all our school work, but much yet remains to be done. An indispensable tool provided to aid the teacher's efficiency is the projection lantern. There are various models of this instrument, but the ideal arrangement is one with which it is possible to project postcards, photographs, drawings, maps and solid objects as well as stereopticon slides. Such a machine accommodates books and magazines of considerable thickness and automatically

brings them into proper plane for projection. There

is no more satisfactory nor efficient way of visualizing than by pictures or stereopticon slides shown through a lantern. Practical visualizing material makes of Ancient History a living, interesting subject rather than a dead, dull abstraction to the high school student. Pictures give an air of actuality to the event or the subject in question—to the word of the textbook or the subject-matter of supplementary reading. They introduce into the class real spirit and enthusiasm and inculcate a desire for further work in history.

Can one better understand the pyramids of Egypt by reading hour after hour statements about these "stupendous structures"—the largest of which "when completed had a height of 481 feet It is now 451 feet high. Its base covers about thirteen acres. Some of the blocks of limestone used in construction weigh fifty tons. On the northern side of the pyramid a narrow entrance, once carefully concealed, opens into tortuous passages which lead to the central vault. Here the sarcophagus of the king was placed," etc., etc.-or by spending forty minutes studying and visualizing the pictures thrown on the screen that show these huge structures from various angles, exterior and interior, by viewing the king's chamber and the less magnificent queen's chamber, the pit and the air passages, by seeing the way they were probably erected and marveling at the skill and nicety of precision in their construction? Is the student likely to forget the hieroglyphics of Egypt or the Egyptian art of mummifying the bodies of dead people and animals after viewing representations of these arts in pictures?

After two recitation periods of talks with the projection material showing the pyramids and temples of Egypt, emphasizing the meaning of Herodotus' statement, "Egypt is the gift of the Nile," and the debts we owe to this early people, no less than five of the students remarked, "I am going to Egypt;" "I want to read more about this civilization"; "I want to see and climb the pyramids."

What a splendid means of teaching the architecture of Babylon and contrasting it with Egyptian architecture is furnished by pictures! Through the use of the projecting machine the cuneiform script, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon and the Library of Asshurbanipal are no longer vague, shadowy or meaningless expressions, but become "living" things.

The study of pictures enables the student to visualize the wonderful contributions of the Greeks, the Romans and the Moslems to art and architecture, and to industry and commerce through the ages. Famous buildings, as the Parthenon, the Erectheum and the theatres of Greece, the Pantheon, the Colosseum and the Forum of Rome and the Sancta Sophia of Constantinople are firmly impressed on the mind and pictures of them are recognized wherever seen. Similarly the masterpieces of art and sculpture, the types of columns, etc., may be studied and vitalized. Here Ancient History may be made very modern and the influence of Greek architecture, for example, seen about us in our public buildings. Students often report having recognized Doric, Ionic or Corinthian columns in homes they have visited or public buildings they have entered. Everywhere life in the home, in public gatherings, in the amusements and diversions

A study of the Eastern Empire during the Middle Ages may be made vital by pictures on Byzantine art and architecture. A study of the medieval church and the monastic movement may be inspired by pictures of the monasteries and monastic life. Pictures of the cathedrals may be introduced both as bearing on the life of the bishops and from the standpoint of architecture, for many of the cathedrals furnish excellent examples of Gothic architecture.

When one enters the study of the Crusade movement, the spirit of the age can be made more vital through pictures on the period.

In handling the subject of towns and trade, pictures of medieval towns, of fairs and markets may be introduced. Such pictures bring out not only the trading conditions of the time, but the means of travel, the dress and the habits, and the life in general.

In connection with the Hundred Years' War, pictures illustrating arms and armor of the Middle Ages are available. These pictures reveal the meaning of the statement—"the long bow and light infantry of the English won the battles of Crecy and Poitiers." Joan of Arc furnishes an excellent topic for oral report work and a splendid example of heroism and an "undying faith."

Perhaps no field furnishes a better opportunity for vitalization through pictures than the Renaissance. Types and examples of medieval architecture may be presented through the projection lantern. The school of Florentine artists and the excellence of Italian art in general may be made a reality by pictures of such masterpieces as Da Vinci's "Last Supper" and "Mona Lisa"; Michael Angelo's "Moses"; Raphael's "Sistine Madonna"; and Correggio's "Holy Night." Similarly the Renaissance art of the Netherlands and other countries may be made a "living" thing.

Again the England of Elizabeth and the France of Louis XIV furnish abundant opportunities for vitalization.

Pictures for the above experiment are collected from such magazines as The National Geographic, The Mentor and Scribner's, from the Perry Pictures Co., from the supplementary books of the various periods; aid is given by the Extension Department of the University of California by supplying sets of stereopticon slides at a nominal charge and much is accomplished through co-operative activity among the students. At the same time individual aptitudes and desires are developed, student initiative is encouraged, a beginning, at least, is made in the process of investigation; and, as a culmination of these steps, a vital interest and an enthusiasm for the subject are aroused. In a word, Ancient History made a "living" thing.

Again, the lantern is of great value in throwing on the screen model examples of outlines, map work, themes and examination papers. It may be used to develop the lesson, especially when entering upon a new field. For example, a physical map of Greece may be shown—the long, irregular coastline, the many good harbors, the mountain ridges extending in every direction; in short, the geographical conditions of the peninsula made a reality and the influence of the geography and the position of Greece both upon the life and history of this ancient peoples making them a great colonizing power, a peoples of city states and local patriotism becomes clear.

Later a geographical study of Rome and Italy may be made in contrast with this observation.

In a similar way the Europe of 843—The Treaty of Verdun—may be made a vital point and the history of Alsace-Lorraine concluded by a study of the Peace Treaties of Versailles and the present boundaries of Western Europe realized.

References:

The following books and magazines contain valuable pictures and other visualizing material:

EGYPT

Breasted, J. A., History of Egypt from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest.

Maspero, G., Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria.
Ragozin, Z., A History of the World's Earliest

Rawlinson, G., Ancient Egypt. Scribner's Magazine, Feb., 1921.

The National Geographic Magazine, Dec., 1907; Sept., 1913. TIGRIS-EUPHRATES VALLEY

Ragozin, Z., Assyria from the Rise of the Empire to the Fall of Nineveh.

Ragozin, Z., The Story of Chaldea from the Earliest Times to the Rise of Assyria.

The National Geographic Magazine, Feb., 1916.

#### GREECE

Abbot, E., Pericles and the Golden Age of Greece. Gardiner, E. N., Greek Athletic Sports and Festivals.

Gardner, E. A., Ancient Athens.

Gulick, C. B., The Life of the Ancient Greeks. Haaren, J. H., and Poland, A. B., Famous Men of Greece.

Mahaffy, J. P., A Survey of Greek Civilization.

Mahaffy, J. P., Old Greek Life.

Shuckburg, E. S., Greece from the Coming of the Hellenes to A. D. 14.

Tarbell, F. B., A History of Greek Art. The Mentor, Feb. 15, 1916; Feb. 1921.

The National Geographic Magazine, Oct. 1915.

Tucker, T. G., Life in Ancient Athens.

#### ROME

Church, Rev. A. J., Roman Life in the Days of Cicero.

Haaren, J. H., and Poland, A. B., Famous Men of the Middle Ages.

Johnston, H. W., Private Life of the Romans.

Lanciani, R., The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome.

Pellison, M., Roman Life in Pliny's Time.

Preston, H. W., and Dodge, L., The Private Life of the Romans.

The Mentor, Dec. 29, 1913; Mar. 1, 1918.

The National Geographic Magazine, June, 1915; Oct., 1916.

Tucker, T. G., Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul.

Wilkins, A. S., Roman Antiquities.

#### MOSLEM CIVILIZATION

Hamil, A. D. F., History of Architecture.

Kimball, F., and Edgell, G. H., A History of Architecture.

Miltoun, F., and McManus, B., In the Land of Mosques and Minarets.

The National Geographic Magazine, Nov., 1912; Aug. 1917. Wallis, F. E., How to Know Architecture.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND CIVILIZATION
Kimball, F., and Edgell, G. H., A History of
Architecture.

Hamlin, A. D. F., History of Architecture. Oman, C. W. C., The Byzantine Empire.

The National Geographic Magazine, Dec., 1914; May, 1915.

MEDIEVAL AND RENAISSANCE ART

Brown, A., and Rankin, W., A Short History of Italian Painting.

Cartwright, J., Painters of Florence.

Collins, W. W., Cathedral Cities of Italy.

Cotterill, H. M., Medieval Italy.

Hamil, A. D. F., History of Architecture.

Kimball, F., and Edgell, G. H., A History of Architecture.

Marquand, A., and Frothingham, A., History of Sculpture.

Reinach, S., Apollo, an Illustrated Manual of the

History of Art through the Ages. Sedgwich, H. D., Short History of Italy.

The Mentor, June 15, 1914; Aug. 1, 1914; Dec. 1, 1916; July 1, 1919; May 1, 1920.

The National Geographic Magazine, Dec., 1914; Oct., 1916.

Van Dyke, J. C., History of Painting. Wallis, F. E., How to Know Architecture.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Archer, T. A., and Kingsford, Chas. S., The Crusades.

Bonner, J., The Story History of France.

Demmin, A., Arms and Armour from the Earliest Period to the Present Time.

Ellis, E. S., Young People's History of France. Haaren, J. H., and Poland, A. B., Famous Men of the Middle Ages.

Harding, S. B., The Story of the Middle Ages.

Headlam, C., The Making of France.

Hudson, W., France, the Nation and Its Development.

Reich, E., Woman Through the Ages, 2 vols. Robinson, J. H., History of Western Europe, Part I, The Middle Ages.

Tappan, E. M., When Knights Were Bold.

Wilmot-Buxton, E. M., The Story of the Cru-

# A Plan for a Socialized History Recitation

BY H. C. HAVIGHURST, HIGH SCHOOL, LORAINE, O.

All progressive teachers have no doubt given the socialized method of recitation a trial. All do not agree as to the results obtained. If we confine our efforts along this line to placing a book in the hands of the pupil and telling him to take charge of the class, we may look for uniform failure. He cannot be expected to conduct the recitation as efficiently as the teacher with years of study and experience.

If success is to be attained the old recitation method must be entirely remodelled to suit the needs of student leadership. Those in charge must be given something definite to do. The whole program must be worked out under close supervision and direction. The plan presented here is designed to meet these needs and at the same time leave a large opportunity for individual initiative and self-expression to the pupil.

It will be convenient to discuss the plan under three heads:

I. THE LESSON PREPARATION

A general subject is assigned for each day's work. This is taken from an outline of the entire course which is made out independently but may follow the lines of the textbook. This outline is placed in the hands of the pupil in order that he may be able to view the course as a whole and see the relations between the subjects treated.

In preparing the lesson the student is asked to enter the following in his notebook: (1) A list of the topics which should be treated of under the subject of the day; (2) Important names and dates in connection with the subject; (3) Questions and discussion and class debate. (These will be explained

further below.)

In addition to the regular daily work a certain amount of reading in other books is required each week. A list of books and chapters dealing with the work under consideration is posted in the library. Notes taken on reference reading are handed in for credit and later replaced in the notebook. A minimum of 10 pages for the week is prescribed, but students are encouraged to read more for additional credit

II. THE RECITATION PERIOD

The 45-minute period is divided into 5 parts.

1. The Report (10 minutes). Topics of interest and importance are assigned several days in advance to members of the class for special reports. These may have to do with the lives of great men or important historical events whose details are of interest. The student to whom a topic is assigned is asked to read in several different books and the class considers him an authority on that subject. At the end of his prepared talk given from notes the other pupils ask questions on points that are not clear or call for additional information. This is a very interesting part of the recitation, although some difficulty was experienced at first in getting the class to ask questions. The teacher may well help here by asking a question of his own occasionally.

2. The Discussion (12 minutes). A member of the class leads the discussion of the questions which have been brought up the day before. These are problem questions of the type frequently used in history teaching. Several are called on to express their views, after which volunteers are given a chance. Three or four questions are usually more than enough to fill the time. Very spirited arguments sometimes arise over questions of justness or relative importance. An attempt is also made to link up the work with present-day problems by asking for comparisons or for the effect of historical events on present conditions. In order to discuss matters of this kind intelligently the pupil must call upon all of his historical knowledge. He is encouraged to bring up material gathered in his reference reading. This is usually the most enjoyable and profitable part of

3. The Topics (12 minutes). The student who has charge of this part of the period first reads the list of 5 or 6 topics which he has listed under part one of his lesson preparation. Additions or criti-

cisms are then made by others as they compare with their own lists. If any differences of opinion arise which are not settled by class discussion the teacher of course may give his views. After a list is agreed upon the leader calls upon someone for each topic. Criticisms are in order after each recitation. This time is of value in keeping the work connected and giving a chance to the weaker pupils.

4. The Teacher (6 minutes). The teacher uses these few minutes in calling attention to any point overlooked by the class, in emphasizing important points, in summing up the work, in suggesting methods of improving the discussions, or in making an-

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nouncements.

5. The Assignment (5 minutes). Members of the class are asked to bring up the questions for discussion or debate which they have written down under part three of the lesson preparation. These may be supplemented by others given by the teacher. During the early part of the course it will be found necessary for the teacher to give most of the questions. But it is surprising how quickly the pupil learns to think of them himself. Discussion and topic leaders for the following day are then announced.

The time divisions given are not at all arbitrary, but ordinarily they are followed rather closely. It is found advisable to vary the recitation frequently. Written lessons may be inserted at any time. On Fridays the report is omitted and the other periods shortened. The extra time is devoted to games and contests which have to do especially with names under part two of the preparation. A "Yes and No" guessing contest on historical names may be held or the class may be divided into two sections and questions to be answered by a name or date asked back and forth, a record being kept of the number missed by each side. On alternate Fridays a portion of this time is given to the election of officers.

#### III. THE CLASS OFFICERS

The officers consist of a president and a secretary elected for a term of two weeks and not eligible for re-election.

The president is made to feel responsible for the success of the recitation. He presides at the meetings, appoints discussion and topic leaders, and takes charge during the last 5-minute period. He acts as time-keeper for the various divisions of the recitation and may use his own judgment in deviating from the allotted time. He may offer criticisms and suggestions on the conduct of the class. The president and the secretary hold frequent conferences with the teacher to discuss the progress of the work.

The secretary keeps a roll of the class, marks attendance and keeps track of the making up of absences. He also looks after the library reading. In order that he may have time for this he is excused from library work during his term of office. Notes are handed to him for crediting. This is of course carefully supervised by the teacher. The secretary marks down the discussion and topic leaders from day to day so that the president may refer to the

roll-book in making his appointments. From time to time the secretary reports to the class any delinquencies in reading or any absences not made up.

This plan is being used with great success in the 11th and 12th year history classes in Lorain High School. The students are enthusiastic. Each one

seems to be eager to have a chance to act as an officer or to lead discussions. The attention in the class room is as nearly perfect as possible. The work goes on almost as well without the presence of the teacher.

# Imagination in the Teaching of History

BY JENNIE L. PINGREY, PROCTOR, VT.

History should be presented to high-school boys and girls in such a way that they will realize that it is not a troublesome accumulation of facts, but the story of real flesh-and-blood people not very different from the people on the streets today. To secure this result, the imagination of the pupil should be employed—his natural power to "make believe." There are several devices which help in this way to make the pages of the history book become vital.

Of such nature is the scheme of asking each pupil to relate an important event in the first person, as, "When I Helped Alexander the Great to Conquer Asia." The pupil will have an opportunity to exercise his originality in deciding what character he will represent. Perhaps one boy will imagine himself to be one of the Macedonian shepherds who were raised to important positions in the army by Alexander or by his father; he may have been amazed at the vast territory over which he has marched, and impressed by the great numbers and the immense wealth of the Persians; possibly he took part in the mutiny at Opis, and later recognized the fact as he walked sadly past the dead body of his beloved commander. Another pupil may choose to be Alexander's favorite steed, Bucephalus, which accompanied him on so many journeys and bore him victoriously on so many battle fields, and for which Alexander named several great cities. Some pupils find it difficult to imagine themselves living in such a different world, but the example of other pupils and a little practice will usually overcome the difficulty. These narrations may be made orally as class-room exercises at the beginning of the year, but later on they may take the form of notebook exercises which are prepared outside of class and several of which may be read in class. In this way emphasis on an important event is secured without tiresome repetition. Other topics which may be treated in this way are, "When We Made King John Grant the Magna Charta," "My Part in the French Revolution," and "When Columbus Returned to Us."

A variation of this device will be found especially useful in recitation upon a lesson in which there were assigned several men who might easily be confused. For example, the great Greek sculptors of a certain period are likely to appear to the pupils a tiresome list of difficult names attached to men who did pretty much the same thing. Their interest may be stimulated by playing a "guessing game." The class is sent to the blackboard and numbered. Then each pupil is told to write about one of the sculptors of the period without mentioning his name. One may

simply write, "I made statues of bronze which were very life-like. My statue of an athlete throwing a discus was especially famous." Another may describe the wonderful statues of Zeus and of Athena made by Phidias. When the descriptions are finished, each pupil endeavors to guess the names of the sculptors, writing them on a piece of paper, as (1) Myron, (2) Phidias, etc. Of course duplication will inevitably occur, but this is not objectionable in moderate degree and, should it occur too frequently, the teacher may quietly suggest a change of subject to one or two pupils. The artists of the Renaissance, or the authors of Rome, may profitably be studied in this way.

The devices described would become tiresome if used very frequently, and they are not often needed in more advanced classes in which discussion may be depended upon to hold the pupil's interest, but they are frequently useful in interesting the younger pupil and in making him see history vividly in its true significance.

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#### Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL. TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

BOTSFORD, GEORGE WILLIS, and BOTSFORD, JAY BARRETT. A Brief History of the World. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. Pp. 15, 554.

Shortly before the reviewer took up this book he had read Wells' "Outline of History." This may account for the fact that the present work does not satisfy him; and the authors may be glad that it did not satisfy one who would read Wells in the same week with a real history textbook. We find this text meeting all of the "progressive" specifications: on the title page we are told it was written with especial reference to social and economic conditions, and these conditions are given full weight; military affairs are reduced to a minimum; the reader is not required to learn how many wives Henry VIII had, or much else about that brutal politician; royal genealogies and court gossip are about eliminated; the illustrations are numerous and excellently chosen. At the end of the chapters are lists of "topics for reading," "questions for review," and "additional studies." It is true that there is a lot of useless military detail about the last war; that such pictures as that of the rear end of a Pullman car, which nearly every high-school boy has seen in propria persona, seem to have been thrown in for good measure; and that the picture of the Panama Canal is unlike anything the reviewer has ever seen before purporting to resemble the canal, But these things do not explain the feeling of dissatisfaction with a book which meets all the regular specifications. May it not be that the book contains a great deal too much? It has been said that one textbook writer made his reputation through leaving out about half of what most other authors would have put in. The text before us would be greatly benefited by some pruning; but the trained teacher will do that. As for the pupils who must bear the burden of untrained teachers, what hope is there for them, anyway?

S.

ROBERTS, PETER. The Problem of Americanization. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. 246 pp.

This book is based on the personal experiences of Dr. Roberts in directing the Americanization workers for the Y. M. C. A. in their various industrial departments. The author discusses the problem as he conceived it, the qualities of the Americanization director as he found them praiseworthy, the program as he outlined it for his institution. A wealth of personal anecdote makes the book extremely easy reading and adds to the charm of its presentation.

Dr. Roberts, however, neither makes a contribution to the philosophy underlying the problem of Americanization, nor does he in any way suggest improvements in the technique. We learn, for example, that "Americanization is the moulding and shaping of the ideas of the foreignborn men as to what America stands for" and that, consequently, the most important character in the process is the Americanizer, the one who can teach what America stands for. There is the assumption that what America stands for is a number of ideals which received their highest expression about one hundred years ago and their greatest exemplification in the lives of early Americans. These, by the way, as Dr. Roberts points out, came from various countries of Europe, but somehow became Americanized without the intermediation of an Americanizer, The author takes no account of the forces of life contacts in a social environment to stimulate, direct, and exercise tendencies to behavior. One gets the impression that the classroom, whether in factory or school, has an extraordinarily large part in adjusting foreigners to their new environment and that the process is chiefly one of telling by some one who undoubtedly knows,

The book is valuable, however, for the beginner in Americanization. Dr. Roberts' suggestions are definite and clearcut. By following the directions given the worker (and we probably must have workers) will at least help the foreigner in his early stages of maladjustment and nostalgia, and thus prepare an apperceptive basis for a gradual appreciation of American institutions. But in the long run, it will not be the worker who will aid in effectively Americanizing foreigners, except in so far as he has the intelligence and the skill to encourage and direct groups of foreigners to participate in self-starting activities which in America are considered good,

H. H. GOLDBERGER.

T

LINGLEY, CHARLES R. Since the Civil War. New York: The Century Company, 1920. pp. ix. 635.

Professor Lingley's book is the first to appear of a series of three volumes on the history of the United States, under the editorship of Professor Max Farrand, of Yale University. The purpose of the series (to which Professor Root, of Wisconsin, is to contribute the volume on "Colonial Beginnings" and Professor Farrand the volume on "The Growth of a Nation") is "to tell a more connected story, with a more clearly-defined object, than is to be found in other co-operative works of this sort, and that object is the explanation of the present situation in the United States, and of some of the most important problems confronting Americans today." How well the series will fulfil this editorial prognostication cannot be known until the other volumes appear. Meantime we may congratulate Professor Lingley on having made a good beginning (or rather a good ending) of the work. His book is written in a clear, straightforward style, with the emphasis on political and social-economic topics well distributed, with impartial judgment of men and movements, and with the evidences of a commendable equipment of sources and secondary material.

The vexing problem of reconciling the adequate development of a topic with the chronological sequence of the story Professor Lingley meets by pausing now and then to devote a chapter to some special subject like "economic foundations" (ch. iii.), "politics and intellectual background" (ch. iv), "the trend of diplomacy" (ch. xiii), or "financial problems" (ch. xv). This method involves some repetition, to be sure; but "repetition is the mother of learning," and perhaps much more of it is needed in our textbooks. The author has a rather unfortunate tendency towards vaguenes or allusiveness at times. Instead, for example, of telling squarely who a man or what a measure was, he leaves the student to guess: "An efficient officer was retained who had originally been appointed by Garfield" (p. 187), or "certain Senate practices" (p. 87), or "the rise of a new political movement in some parts of the South" (p. 27), or "certain interests" (p. 38), "Certain" almost always spells "uncertain" for the student.

Errors get into the best of books. But it seems as though Professor Lingley could have been considerably more careful about historical details. To take only the first forty pages of the book, we find a number of slips. The Thirteenth Amendment was not ratified by all the Johnson legislatures (e. g. Mississippi) (p. 8); the Fourteenth Amendment did not reduce the representation of states which denied the vote to "any citizens (e. g. women and children) except those guilty of crimes" (p. 12); the negroes were not powerful in politics "at the close of the war" (p. 28); the Republican party had "ceased to be of importance in the South" long before 1890 (p. 29); A. T. Stewart was not "the Secretary of the Treasury," but was nominated for that post by Grant (p. 37); it was the Cabinet, not the Senate, that threw cold water on Grant's Santo Domingo project (p. 39). Omissions of important qualifying facts sometimes must leave the student with a wrong impression,

On the whole, however, the book is, in the reviewer's opinion, the best single volume we have on our history since the Civil War; and even some infelicities of style are hardly sufficient to merit for it the amusingly awkward compliment of the editorial announcement: "These character sketches perhaps come nearer to being pieces of good writing than anything else in the book"(!)

DAVID SAVILLE MUZZEY.

EARLE, EDWARD MEAD. An Outline of Modern History-a Syllabus with Map Studies. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1921. pp. x, 166.

This brief and well-arranged guide to modern history covers the years from 1500 to 1920. It is based chiefly upon the text of Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes' work in two volumes on the political and social history of modern Europe, and his brief history of the Great War. But references are made to several volumes of comparatively recent dates, among others to John S. Bassett's Short History of the United States, Edward P. Cheyney's Introduction of the Industrial and Social History of England, Clive Day's, A History of Commerce, and to some variety of atlases. The analyses are clear, concise, and careful, to both students and teachers the work should be helpful, for its purpose is to bring out only the most salient points over a period of rather more than four centuries, and at the same time to co-ordinate into a living whole the slow processes of political, economic, social and military development. Peculiarly suggestive are four appendices (pp. 121 et seq.) on "Studying and Note-taking," on "Map Studies," on "Book Reviews," and on "Historical Essays." These appendices reveal what is certainly a growing custom among competent teachers of history-the exacting in greater or lesser degree from their pupils of something in the nature of constructive written work. To teach even young students how to formulate conclusions in clear, straightforward language is essential in the process of sound thinking and clear conviction in history. The work is a sort of laboratory manual.

H. B. LEARNED.

#### Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Aug. 27, to Sept. 24, 1921

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY Bassett, John S. A short history of the United States, 1492-1920 [new and enl, edition]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 942 pp. \$3.90 net. Beardsley, Frank G. The builders of a nation; a history

of the Pilgrim Fathers. Boston: Budger. 356 pp.

\$2.50 net.

Blaisdell, A. F. and Ball, F. K. Log cabin days; American history for beginners. Boston: Little, Brown. 137 pp. \$1.20 net. Boston Public Library.

New England; a selected list of works in the Public Library of the city of Boston. Boston. Public Library. 38 pp. 5c.

Forman, Samuel E. Advanced American history. N. Y.:

Century Co. 651 pp. \$2.00 net.
Gathorne-Hardy, G. M., translator. The Norse discoverers of America; the Wineland Sagas. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 304 pp. \$4.75. Harrington, M. Raymond. Cuba before Columbus. N. Y.:

Museum of the American Indian. Heye Foundation.
Martin, Charles E. The policy of the United States as
regards intervention [bound with "The English reform
bill of 1867," by J. H. Park.] N. Y.: Longmans,
Green & Co. 173 pp. \$5.50 net.

ANCIENT HISTORY Brandt, Lida R. Social aspects of Greek life in the sixth century, B. C. Phila.: T. C. Davis & Sons, 506

Race st. 108 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$2.00 net. British Museum. Cunciform texts from Babylonian tablets, pt. 35. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. Cuneiform texts from Cappadocian tablets, pt. 1. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$11.25, Hittite texts in the cuneiform character from tablets in the British Museum. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press.

\$6,75. Price, Julius J., editor. The Yemenite mss. of Mo'ed Katon; Babylonian Talmud. N. Y.: Oxford Univ.

Press. 36 pp. \$3.85.

ENGLISH HISTORY Cunningham, William. Monuments of English municipal life [Helps for students of history, No. 26.] N. Y .:

Macmillan. 54 pp. 40c. net.
k, Joseph A. The English reform bill of 1867 [bound with "The Policy of the United States as regards Intervention, by C. E. Martin.] N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 173 pp. \$5.50 net. Park, Joseph A. EUROPEAN HISTORY

Miller, William. The Turkish restoration in Greece, 1718-1897 [Helps for students of history, No. 38.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 45 pp. 40c. net.

Perkins, Clarence. An outline of recent European history, 1815-1921. Columbus, O.: College Bk. Co. 96 pp. 75c. net.

Stoddard, Theodore L. The new world of Islam. N. Y .: Scribner. 362 pp. \$3.00 net.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION Baker, Charles W. Government control and operation of industry in Great Britain and the United States during the world war. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 138 pp. \$1.00 net.

George, David Lloyd, and Simons, Walter. Addresses on German reparation; London, March 3 and 7, 1921. N. Y.: American Ass'n for International Conciliation.

Italy, Supreme Command of the Royal Italian Army. The battle of the Piave, June 15-23, 1918. N. Y.: Doran. 82 pp. \$4,00 net. Johnson, Douglas W. Battlefields of the World War;

western and southern fronts; a study in military geography, 2 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. \$7.00, Newman, George P., compiler. The German air force in the great war. N. Y.: Doran. 297 pp. \$4.00 net. Pugh, I. E. and Thayer, W. F. Forgotten fight of the

A. E. F. Boston: Roxburgh Pub. Co. 141 pp. \$2.00 net.

#### MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Burchardus, Johannes. Pope Alexander VI and his court; extracts from the Latin diary of Johannes Burchardus.

N. Y.: N. L. Brown, 187 pp. \$2.00 net.

Seyboldt, Robert I., translator. Manuale Scholarum; an original account of life in the medieval university in the form of a dialogue between two students of Heidelberg.] Cambridge, Mass. Harvard Univ. Press. 122 pp. \$1.50 net.

Wilson, James M., editor. The Worcester Liber albus; glimpses of life in a great Benedictine monastery in the 14th century. N. Y.: Macmillan. 283 pp. \$6.00

#### STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGE-MENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912.

of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1921.

County of Philadelphia, ss: State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County, aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL Ournook, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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ALFRED C. WILLITS. Sworn to and subscribed before me this 5th day of October, 1921. JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Forbes, Allan. Towns of New England and Old England, Ireland, and Scotland, 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. 225 pp. \$12.50 net. Hartland, Edwin S. Primitive society. N. Y.: Dutton.

180 pp. \$2.50 net.

McBride, George M. The Agrarian Indian communities of Highland Bolivia. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 27

Muller-Lyer, Franz Carl. The history of social development. N. Y.: Knopf. 350 pp. \$5.00 net.

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Ford, Worthington C. Some papers of Aaron Burr. Worcester, Mass. Am. Antiquarian Soc. 88 pp.

Lennes, Nels J. and Phillips, Paul C. The story of Columbus. Phila.: Lippincott, 168 pp. \$1.25 net.

Haworth, Paul L. Trailmakers of the Northwest. N. Y.:

Harcourt, Brace & Co. 277 pp. \$2.50 net.

White, Charles S. Lincoln and prohibition. N. Y.: The Abingdon Press. 233 pp. \$2.00 net.

Brandes, Georg. Michaelangelo Buonarotti. 2 vols. [writ-ten in Danish.] N. Y.: Albert Bonnier, 561 Third Ave. \$12.00 net.

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